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SELECTIONS FROM KUANG-MING JIH-PAO

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SELECTIONS FROM KUANG-MING JIH-PAO

(Source Span: 17 May - 26 June 1961)

Number 8

- Communist China -

Foreword

This serial report is comprised of translations of selected articles from the above-mentioned daily published in Peiping. The source span indicates only the earliest and latest issues processed for any given report and should not be construed as all-inclusive dates. Selections are full translations unless otherwise indicated.

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I. SCIENTIFIC

DEVISING A BETTER METHOD OF LOOKING UP WORDS IN DICTIONARIES

[Following is the translation of an article by Ting Hsi-lin (丁西林) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 17 May 1961, page 4.]

On 15 June 1959 I wrote an article in Kuang-ming Jih-pao titled "A Suitable Method of Looking Up Words in Dictionaries for the Broad Masses Is Urgently Needed." The content of the article was to call the attention of editors of dictionaries to the needs of the laboring masses to learn culture and to call on them to put an end to the practice of finding words according to morphological structure and the sequence of strokes of characters when they publish new dictionaries or reprint old ones.

By morphological structure of Chinese characters I meant the method of finding words by etymologically determined radicals as used in old dictionaries and the so-called improved methods of finding words by radicals. [As Chinese is not an inflectional language, the word "morphological" is used here in a much broader sense than most linguists would allow.] The improved methods have not done away with the undesirable features of the radicals. The methods of finding words according to the sequence of strokes include the methods based on the analysis of "starting strokes," "path of strokes," and "ending strokes," as well as all the methods based on the number of strokes. Two years have passed, and this need is more urgent than ever.

The Language Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Sciences is about to publish the newly compiled Modern Chinese Dictionary. The Commercial Press and the Chung-hua Book Company are separately preparing to revise the old editions of Tz'u-yuan and Tz'u-hai. Now the problem arises: how are they going to arrange their words in the dictionaries? Which method should be employed to enable people to find the words they want to find? If words can be arranged according to the method by which they are to be found (this is naturally the best method), then the two problems become one requiring only one solution.

But this is not absolutely necessary. Words can be arranged in a way not related to the method of finding them. For instance, words are arranged according to some phonetic order and the method of locating them is based on the morphological structure of the characters. Naturally a character index must be appended in such a dictionary. Otherwise, a user of the dictionary cannot find the words that he does not know. It is absurd to ask someone, "Do you want to know this word? If you know how to pronounce

it, you can find it in my dictionary."

I believe the editors of dictionaries have done a great deal of thinking about the above-stated two problems. But it seems to me that a solution is yet to be found.

In the article I wrote two years ago, I said, "To make a dictionary as useful as it should be educationally and to help people form the good habit of frequently using the dictionary requires a good method of locating words. The criteria of a good method are easy to learn and easy to use not only for the intellectuals but, more important, for the broad masses who have had little education." I have only mentioned the criteria of being "good." However, I did not describe what might be considered a good method. Now I want to talk in general terms about the principles on which a modern method of locating words should be based. That is to say, what steps should be taken to insure that a really good method will be arrived at.

1. Analysis of the Problem

In the search for a good method of finding Chinese characters, we must first analyze our problem. Our analysis has two aspects: (1) the users for whom the dictionary is designed; (2) the materials to be dealt with. First let us talk about the intended users. The method sought will serve all people using the Chinese language and those who are learning it. Besides the Han nationality, there are the national minorities of China and the foreigners. Since the intended users consist of such heterogeneous groups, won't there be contradictions in our search for a method of using the dictionary? Taking the Han nationality alone, there are the educated people and the laboring masses in industry and agriculture who have had limited education. Won't there be methods more suitable to the educated than the laboring masses? Conversely, won't there be other methods only suitable to the laboring masses but unsuitable to the educated? The answer to the former is in the affirmative. With the exception of the method of code numbers, all the methods currently in use in new and old dictionaries such as starting strokes, path of strokes, and the number of strokes, are practically all of this kind.

The answer to the second question is that it is very hard to conceive of a method which can be easily grasped by the industrial and agricultural laboring masses but cannot be grasped by the educated. Of course, it is possible for the intellectuals to have a feeling of being unaccustomed to a certain new method, much like the feeling they have towards the use of phonetic symbols, Romanization or currently promoted simplified characters. Not being used to and not willing to learn a new method should not be confused with its inaptitude and being impossible to learn. Frankly speaking, the intellectuals are comparatively conservative, when you come to the problems of various language reforms. We should not favor the conservatism of the minority intellectuals and identify it as the opinion of the people and help them in obstructing the development of undertakings beneficial to the people and the various technological revolutions

and reform.

Someone may say, "I agree that the methods currently being used are indeed in favor of the intellectuals. I further agree that whatever method that the laboring masses can master can also be mastered by the intellectuals. Now can you find a method superior to all the methods used at present?" My answer is, "Not just one but many such methods can be found." Two years ago I mentioned in my article a "method based on the head and tail stroke radicals." I do not dare to say that it is superior to all other methods, but it is at least better than all those methods that I then criticized.

Next, let us talk about the material to be dealt with. Of course, the entirety of Chinese characters are the stuff we have to contend with. One of the characteristics of Chinese characters is that simple characters constitute less than 10% of the total number and over 90% are compound characters. Simple characters are descendants of earliest pictographs, such as "日月山水舟車弓矢口手耳牛馬魚鳥", etc. Compound characters are formed by several (mainly two) characters. The vast majority of these are the so-called morpho-phonetic characters which are dominated by the side-by-side arrangement. The earliest radicals were these simple characters. A compound character is then said to belong to the group represented by the meaning-bearing radical which is structurally a part of the character. This is the foundation of the method of locating words by radicals.

This foundation has never been sound before and has now become even more shaky. This is because of the changes in radicals which made a constant change of characters themselves necessary. What changes have the radicals undergone? First, their number has been reduced from over 500 as listed in Shuo-wen to over 210 in old dictionaries. Recently, the number has been further reduced to 178 in new dictionaries. Changes in quantity have brought about changes in quality. The first change in quality took place in the grouping of characters according to radicals, which started out as a reasonable system and ended in complete arbitrariness.

The second change in quality is the creation of "stroke radicals." The characters which originally belonged to simple character radicals are absorbed by stroke radicals. The same thing is happening to the simple character radicals themselves, such as the radical "長." One example will serve to explain both kinds of changes. "𧢲" originally meant female monkey and it was reasonable to have placed it in the "爪" (claw) radical group. Then the character became "𧢲", the "claw" having disappeared. It was arbitrarily placed in the "𠂇" radical group. Now "𧢲" is further simplified into "𧢲" and "𠂇" has disappeared. Now you place it under "𠂇." What is this "𠂇"? You cannot stretch your imagination here and say that "𠂇" is really the ancient "主" and hence is a simple character different from stroke radicals, such as "フ", "7", "A", "<." Examples like this were many when the number of radicals began to be reduced.

More of the same is yet to come. For Chinese characters are undergoing rapid simplification. Many compound characters become simple char-

acters such as "電" (电), "雲" (云), "雪" (雪), "殺" (杀), "雉" (左), "鶴" (雀), "東" (东), "樂" (乐), "義" (义), "盡" (尽), "衛" (卫), "結" (结), "書" (书), etc. You have to place these quite arbitrarily in some character radical groups or existing or newly created stroke radical groups.

From this we see that the old radical systems and the improved radical systems are really formed by three components: (1) most often used simple character radicals such as "乚", "扌", "亻", "木", "口", "言", "金", "艹", "竹", etc; (2) character radicals with limited number of characters in their groups; (3) a small number of stroke radicals such as "丶", "一", "丨", "丿", "㇀", "㇁", "㇂", "乙", "丿", "㇀", "㇁", "㇂", "㇃", etc. In short, the whole radical system is based on large character radical groups backed up by small character radical groups and rounded out by the few stroke radical groups. This is the situation we find today.

How about the development from now on? Simple character radicals with small number of characters in their groups are disappearing one by one and the characters in their groups are being taken over by the stroke radicals. This is borne out by two cases. In the 1955 edition of Hsin-hua Dictionary, the following old radicals were removed: "萑", "非", "高", "而", and "玄". In the 1957 edition, additional ones were removed such as "霽", "命", "齊", "果", "兕", "商", "香", "飛", "首", "非", "秉", "長", "良", "于", and "七". In the 1957 edition the stroke radicals "丨", "丿", "乙", "丶", and "一" gained 212 characters. In the advance copy of the Modern Chinese Dictionary soon to be published by the Language Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, the same five stroke radicals will gain 383 characters. The trend cannot be denied.

Since this is the case, why don't we follow the trend and change all character radicals into stroke radicals? Someone might say that "乚", "扌", "亻"...are natural radicals and that among the six or seven thousand commonly-used characters, over 300 are in the "乚" radical group, over 200 in each of "扌", "亻", and "木" and over 100 in each of "口", "言", "金", "艹", "竹", "金", "女", "齊", and "虫". In addition to these, there are many radicals with dozens of characters in each. Wouldn't it be a pity to junk these radicals and redistribute their characters? Yes, it is undeniable that these radicals have special significance in Chinese characters. It is indeed a shame to disband their groups. But what I propose to do is nothing more than to treat these radicals like the rest of the simple characters and place them in stroke radical groups with their original groups placed after them. Their advantage of being popular radicals is thus preserved.

2. Selection of Approach

There are two ways to arrange words in a dictionary -- the phonetic and the morphological. The former method calls for the arrangement of words in some phonetic order. The order of homonyms is then determined by

some morphological method. I will not go into these too deeply, except for making the following two observations. (1) The use of a phonetic method of arranging words is not limited to dictionaries. As mentioned above, if the words are arranged phonetically in a dictionary, then it must have a character index appended in order to locate words of unknown sounds. Besides application in dictionaries, it can also be applied to library work, biographical and geographical indexes (including medical histories of patients in hospitals), translating characters into telegraph code numbers, etc. A unified phonetic arrangement of characters can save people energy and time. It is a problem awaiting prompt solution.

(2) There are two kinds of modern Chinese phonetic orders: B (ㄅ), P (ㄆ), M (ㄇ), F (ㄈ)... and A, B, C, D, The discrepancies of opinions as to the relative merits of these two systems can be easily resolved through discussions. Within each of these systems there are some secondary problems relating to word arrangement. These problems are not difficult to settle. I am hopeful that a unified phonetic arrangement will soon be reached.

The number of methods of locating words based on morphological structure of characters are conservatively estimated to be about 100. They can generally be divided into two types: (1) those directly based on structural features and (2) those based on translation of strokes into code number. The former includes radicals, starting stroke, final stroke, head of the character, tail of the character, number of strokes, and the structure of the strokes of the entire character, etc. I have talked a great deal about these in very general terms, but as to the specifics I am still somewhat at a loss. Anyway, I cannot introduce and discuss them in this article.

The code number system originated from considerations of the broad masses in industry and agriculture. Hence, it is the right approach. There are many concrete methods from which one or more can be chosen for experimentation through discussion and study.

3. Study and Actual Practice

Methods based on structural features of characters and code number methods are both acceptable in principle. Their specific contents can be obtained by further study and actual practice. I suggest that each method be made into a unified system and be put into practice. One of the two may then be selected, or both systems may be allowed to exist for the time being.

Addendum

For the benefit of those comrades who are studying the various methods and whose advice is sought, the improved version of the head radicals and tail radicals as proposed two years ago are listed as follows:

Head Radicals (34)

1. Horizontal: 一 冂 冂 冂 冂 冂 冂 冂
2. Vertical: 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨
3. Downward to the Left: 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿
4. Dot: 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶
5. Downward to the Right: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏
6. Hook: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏

Tail Radicals (34)

1. Horizontal: 一 一 一 一 一 一 一 一
2. Vertical: 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨 丨
3. Downward to the Left: 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿 丿
4. Dot: 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶 丶
5. Downward to the Right: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏
6. Left Hook: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏
7. Right Hook: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏
8. Upward: ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏ ㇏

WRITTEN LANGUAGE REFORM

[Following are translations of two articles in the Language Reform Column of Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 31 May 1961, page 4.]

The Problem of Checking Chinese Words through Alphabetic Order by Chou Yu-kuang 周有光

There are two ways of checking Chinese characters: one through the form of the character and one through the phonetic of the character. Relating to the form of a character, there are the following methods which can be used for checking the character: the radical method, the stroke-number method, the form of the stroke, and the method of designating a number to each form of the character. Relating to the phonetic of the character, there are three methods which can be used to check the character -- the method of following the order of the final in its syllable, the method of following the order of phonetic alphabets, and the method of following the order of Romanizations.

All these methods have been in use for a long time and new developments have been made recently. Among the methods which check a character through the form of a character, the radicals method has been the most common. Books like Shuo-wen Chieh-tzu and the K'ang Hsi Dictionary have been using this radical method. Its new developments include the method of initial strokes, the method of designating a number to each corner of the character, and the method of revised radicals.

Among the methods which check a character through its phonetic, the method of following the order of the final of its syllable has been the most common. Those dictionaries like Kuang Yun and P'ei Wen Yun Fu have been using this method. Its recent developments include the method of following the order of phonetic alphabets and the method of following the order of Latin Romanization. Languages which involve only spelling need only the phonetic method, but our language which has characters must have both methods - the phonetic method and the method of checking through the form of a character.

Both categories have their advantages and disadvantages and both have their fields of application and limitations. The disadvantages of the method of following the order of Latin Romanization are as follows: (1) Whenever there is a character whose pronunciation you do not know, you cannot check the character by this Romanization method. (2) One must know the Latin alphabet before he can use this Latin Romanization method.

The advantages of this Latin Romanization method are as follows:

(1) One does not need to learn this Romanization simply because he wants to check a character. Although it takes quite an effort for anyone to learn the Latin alphabet and Latin Romanization of Chinese characters, it is necessary for every citizen to learn the Latin alphabet and Latin Romanization of our characters. The use of Latin Romanization is not limited to the checking of dictionaries. Nowadays, teachers in all grade schools and some industrial and agricultural schools are teaching this kind of Romanization to students. Most of our intellectuals know the Latin alphabet and it should not be too difficult for them to learn the Latin Romanization of our characters. Since the use of the Latin alphabet is very broad, it would not be easy for one to forget, once he has learned this Romanization system. Therefore, Latin Romanization is a good system suitable for further promotion, especially for children and our masses of workers and farmers.

(2) One does not need to check an index before checking the character directly. It is simpler, fast, and accurate. In some dictionaries, you have to go through two steps -- checking the radical index first, then the main contents. Using Latin Romanization, one could save a lot of trouble. One could easily locate the character without much doubt. Once you get used to the method, your speed in checking dictionary could surpass that of any other method.

(3) The location of a character will not be changed because the form of the character has been simplified. Since the publication of our plan for the simplification of Chinese characters, the masses have initiated a great number of simplified characters. If we follow the method of checking characters through the forms of those characters, we have to rearrange the location of those characters once they were simplified. This is too troublesome. To use Latin Romanization, we won't be bothered by the simplification of our characters. The only thing we should do is to rewrite those characters which have been simplified, thus saving a lot of manpower and materials. This Latin Romanization is best suited for dictionaries with the primary function of explaining meanings of characters and words (such as Tz'u Yuan, Tz'u Hai, and Hsin Chih-shih Tz'u-tien) in order to avoid revision immediately after their publication.

(4) Latin Romanization is an internationally accepted method of checking dictionaries. The order in the Latin alphabet is the standard order of the world. You could use that order for checking both Chinese dictionaries, dictionaries of other languages, as well as languages of our minority people in our country. It is more convenient to follow the same system.

(5) The order in Latin Romanization is the most popular order for compiling indexes. The order used in Latin Romanization could not only be used in dictionaries, but also could be used in an index for library cards, an index for machinery, an index for names and places, and others. It is also very convenient for compiling a cross-index for different languages.

(6) Whenever you know the pronunciation of a character, you can always find the character from the dictionary. Children and some adults

usually have the trouble of knowing the sound but not the form of a character when they were writing essays, letters, or accounts. They can use Latin Romanization to find the character from the dictionary right away without any difficulty. For intellectuals, Latin Romanization could be a great help to them whenever they forget some character.

After evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of all methods of the checking of Chinese characters, we can safely conclude that Latin Romanization is the best method and should be our emphasis for future development.

(II)

There are several problems relating to the order of the alphabet in Latin Romanization which need serious consideration. (1) Should we follow the order of phonetic alphabets? For example, books like T'ung-yin Tzu-tien and others have arranged their Romanization according to the order of the phonetic alphabet. Does it work? The answer is no. Let us examine just one example. The order of the phonetic alphabet is , , and , while their Latin Romanization equivalents are "ai", "ei", "ao", and "on;" "e" is followed by "a" and sometimes "a" is followed by "e." This is too confusing to those who do not know phonetic alphabet. Consequently, we must follow the order of the Latin alphabet if we adopt Latin Romanization. (2) The next problem is the arrangement of double initials of syllables. In Chinese pronunciation, single initials are usually used. However, there are exceptions such as "zh", "ch", "sh", and "ng." How should we arrange those double initials? Let us compare the two formulae in Table I.

Table I

Formula A

(Treating double initials as two units)

shanggong 上 工
shangu 山 谷
shengshi 省 事
shengsi 生 絲
sisha 思 所 殺
sisuo 思 素 索
suzhi 素 質
suzi 俗 字

Formula B.

(Treating double initials as one single unit)

sisuo 思 索 殺
sisha 思 所 殺
suzi 俗 字 質
suzhi 俗 素 質
shangu 山 谷
shanggong 上 工
shengsi 生 絲
shengshi 省 事

Actually, it is more convenient to treat each double initial as two units because of the following reasons: (1) Readers usually check characters according to the order of the alphabet instead of the order of sound. (2) It takes two letters to form a double initial so it is not convenient to treat it as one unit especially for multiple syllable words. (3) It has been an internationally accepted practice to treat a double

initial as two units (with certain exceptions).

(3) How should we arrange those letters with symbols? Ordinarily a letter with an extra symbol is arranged to follow ones without any extra symbol. However, there are variations. Let us consider the arrangement of "u." After comparing the two formulae in Table II, we find that Formula A is more suitable because of the following reasons: (a) "u" is a letter with an added symbol. It does not have an independent position in the list of letters and the two dots above "u" were usually omitted. So "u" without two dots above it should be arranged like "u" and "u" should be arranged after "u". (b) It is the international practice to arrange normal letters first, then arrange the order of letters with added symbols. (Check the arrangement of "u" in German dictionaries.) The draft of Han-yl P'ing-yin Tz'u-hui used Formula B then in its third printing changed into Formula A. Hsien-tai Han-yl Tz'u-tien adopted Formula A in its first printing. The wisdom of these decisions will be discussed later.

Table II

<u>Formula A</u>	<u>Formula B</u>
hu	hu
ju	ju
lu	lu
lʰ	luan
luan	lʰ
lʰe	lʰe
nu	nu
nʰ	nuan
nuan	nʰ
nʰe	nʰe
qu	qu
ru	ru
xu	xu

(4) How should we arrange the order of non-accented letters. Of course, letters with added symbols such as ʰ or e should be arranged first and four tones should be arranged later. However, according to our present plan, there is no sign for non-accented letters while our past practice put signs for non-accented letters after tone marks. In Latin Latinization letters without any symbols precede those with symbols. Here we have the problem of the arrangement of non-accented letters. Our conclusion on this point is to arrange non-accented letters the same way as we arranged letters which have no added symbols. We have made this decision because of the following reasons: (a) It is in conformity with the international practice of having a letter without an added symbol precede a letter with an added symbol. (b) Letters without added symbols contained in dictionaries are not necessarily non-accented letters. If we do not have a definite rule for placing those non-accented letters, readers will get very confused. The best way of using dictionaries is to follow mechanical rules. We can

reserve this problem for further discussions.

(5) How should we arrange the order of words? There are two ways in arranging the order of Romanized words. The first way is to arrange the order of words according to the Romanization of the whole word. The second way is to arrange the order according to the Romanization of the first character in each word. If we follow the latter, we would put all words with the same initial character in one group. Please compare the two formulae in Table III. Actually, both formulae have useful purposes and are not mutually exclusive. We should keep both in order to get the maximum benefits out of them.

Table III

Formula A	Formula B
dān 單	dān 單
dāng 當	dānyuán 單元
dāngē 耽擱	dāngē 耽擱
dāngguī 當歸	dāng 當
dānyuán 單元	dāngguī 當歸

The Checking of Chinese Words through Phonetic Methods by Pai Shui (白水)

To check Chinese words, one must study the characteristics of Chinese characters and use both the method of forms and the phonetic method. For characters of which you know only the sound, you have to check through the sound. For those characters of which you know only the form, you must check them through the form. If you know both the sound and the form of a character, you can use any method. Consequently, we should include both methods in our effort to unify the checking of Chinese words or characters. Under each method, we should allow one or two varieties for the readers to choose. After these unified ways have been published, everyone should follow these methods unless he has a very special reason to adopt some other method such as the methods used in special dictionaries for poets or musicians.

The Phonetic Method of Checking Chinese Characters

In the past, whenever we used the phonetic method of checking a word or character, we usually traced the final of the Chinese syllable. For example, this method was used in all the rhyming dictionaries. Now, this kind of dictionary can only satisfy special needs. It is not suitable for general use and we must find some other phonetic method of checking a word or a character.

After the system of a phonetic alphabet was established, most dictionaries used the method of following the order of the phonetic alphabet in checking a word or a character. This method is much better than the method of following the finals of syllables because it is more convenient and more scientific. No wonder people all welcomed this method. However,

since the adoption of Latin Romanization, very few people have continued using this system of the phonetic alphabet. Consequently, we cannot continue using the order of the phonetic alphabet in arranging words or characters in our dictionaries without giving the readers too much trouble. The order of the phonetic alphabet is not suitable for a unified system of checking Chinese words or characters.

Since the adoption of Latin Romanization, dictionaries such as Han-yü P'ing-yin Tz'u-hui, Hsin Hua Dictionary, Farmers' Dictionary, and a Dictionary of Chinese Idioms have adopted the method of following the order of Latin Romanization in arranging the order of words. Under the system of following the order of Latin Romanization, there are two approaches. The first approach is to follow the order of Latin Romanization strictly. The second approach is to consider both the order of Latin Romanization and the tones of Chinese characters. Han-yü P'ing-yin Tz'u-hui has adopted the former approach and the Hsin Hua Dictionary as well as the other two dictionaries mentioned above have adopted the latter approach. Let us use the following words to compare the two approaches.

Approach A (Following the order of Latin Romanization)

aidao	哀悼
aiguo	愛國
aiming	哀鳴
aiqu	哀求
airen	愛人
aitong	哀痛
aixi	愛惜
ancha	安插
andan	暗淡
anding	安定
andou	暗鬥

Approach B (Following both Chinese tones and the order of Latin Romanization)

aidao	哀悼	哀鳴
aiming		
aiqu	哀求	哀痛
aitong		
aiguo	愛國	
airen		愛人
aixi	愛惜	
ancha		安插
anding	安定	
andan		暗淡
andou	暗鬥	

From the above tables, it is obvious that the first table follows the strict order of Latin Romanization and the second table follows both the order of Chinese tones and the order of Latin Romanization. The first approach is suitable for listing Romanization as well as compiling a Romanization-character dictionary. The latter approach is more suitable for listing characters as well as compiling a character-Romanization dictionary. I think this latter approach should be adopted as the standard phonetic method of checking Chinese words.

Problems Relating to Phonetic Methods of Checking Chinese Words

(1) When we follow the order of Latin Romanization, we still have problems with the arrangement of such letters as "c", "s", "z", "ch", "sh", "zh", "u", and "ü". Some dictionaries, such as the Dictionary of Chinese Idioms, separate "c, s, z" from "ch, sh, zh," and put "u" and "ü" together.

Some dictionaries separate "c, s, z" from "ch, sh, zh" and "u" from "ü." Also, some dictionaries, such as Han-yü P'ing-yin Tz'u-hui, mixed "c, s, z" "ch, sh, zh", "u" and "ü" together. All these discrepancies should be unified.

If we follow the phonetic order checking Chinese words, we should separate "c, s, z," "ch, sh, zh," and "u" and "ü" because these sounds are different. We should separate "c, s, z" from "ch, sh, zh." We should also separate "u" from "ü". Then we should list "ch" after "c", "sh" after "s", and "zh" after "z". Of course, "ü" must be listed after "u". This kind of arrangement is much better because there are fewer words with "c, s, z" initials than with "ch, sh, zh" initials. Consequently, we should not mix them because it would be hard for the readers to use.

To mix "c, s, z" with "ch, sh, zh" would be bad enough. However, if we mixed "u" with "ü" it would be even worse. Even if we mixed "u" and "ü" according to the order of their tones, it would still be confusing.

Even if we adopted the strict order of Latin Romanization it would be much clearer for our readers to have "c, s, z" separated from "ch, sh, zh" and "u" from "ü".

In countries which have adopted Latin Romanization, practices still vary a lot. There are different ways of handling double initials and letters with extra symbols. Some separate double initials from single initials and letters without extra symbols from letters with extra symbols. For example, in the Czech language, "h" and "ch" are separated and "ch" is listed after "h." "c" and "c" are separated and "c" is listed after "c." However, in the French language, "c" and "c" are mixed together. Therefore, we should make a choice according to our own practical situation.

(2) The arrangement of words with "r" finals is another problem. The present practice is to place words with "r" finals according to the alphabetic order. For example, bian-er is listed after bian-qu and bair-bashi is listed after bai-nian-da-ji. If we follow the phonetic rule, this arrangement is incorrect because a word with an "r" final does not sound the same as the same word without an "r" final. If we follow the rule of sound, we have to list another tone. For example, we must put "bianr" after "bian", "biar" after "biao", and "bair" after "bai," (or "bar" after "bao") thus separating words with "r" finals from words without them (like pien erh and pien, pai erh pa shih and pai), and causing inconvenience to the readers.

There is another way of handling this problem. We could put words with an "r" and the same words without an "r" together. In other words, we could put a word with an "r" final right after the same word without an "r" final and treat the former as a variation of the latter. Although this arrangement neither follows the phonetic nor the alphabetic order, it is easier for the readers to use. I think we should use this method.

(3) To check words through the phonetic method, we must separate words with the same Romanization but different tones. This way would help to reduce the number of words of the same sound because it is very hard for readers to handle too many words of the same sound. At present, dictionaries using the phonetic method generally have adopted the following tones:

the even, the rising, the departing, and the entering.

However, practices governing zero tones are not the same. Some list a word with a zero tone after the same word with a departing tone. Some list a word with a zero tone before the same word with a full tone. Some even omit zero tones altogether. In my opinion, it is better for us to keep zero tones. Otherwise, what are we going to do with "de" (的) and "le" (了)? And it is better to place a word with a zero tone after the same word with a departing tone because it is more convenient for the readers.

However, there are special cases which will cause trouble. For example, "huodong fenzi", "huodongjia" and "huodong" will give us trouble. Fortunately, we do not have too many such exceptions so we can always find some way of handling the special cases such as placing a word with a zero tone before the same word with a full tone. Since we have distinguished words with zero tones from those with full tones, should we also distinguish other phonetic variations? According to the present practices, most dictionaries do not distinguish other phonetic variations because these phonetic variations usually follow certain rules while there is no rule governing zero tones. As long as we have introduced the rules governing phonetic variations, we do not need to distinguish them anymore; otherwise it will be too detailed and too confusing.

(4) Most dictionaries using the phonetic method group words with the same initial character together. What is the rule governing the order of these words? Dictionaries like a Dictionary of Chinese Idioms followed the order of sounds. For example, since those words all have the same initial character, the sound of the second syllable of each word will decide the order. If the second syllables of these words are the same, the order will be decided by the sound of the third syllable, etc. Some dictionaries like Farmers Dictionary let the number of characters in those words decide their order. Words with two characters are listed first; words with three characters next, etc. For words with the same number of characters, the order is to be decided by the number of strokes in the second characters of those words. I personally prefer the former method which arranges the order of words according to the rule of sound. It is more consistent and easier for readers to use.

(5) There is no unified rule governing the order of words with the same Romanization and the same tones. Some follow the rule governing the phonetic part of the word. Some followed the rule of stroke order and some followed the rule of number of strokes. It is necessary to have a general rule governing the order of words with the same Romanization and the same tone, otherwise it is very hard to check once the number of such words becomes too big. In the past, very few people paid any attention to this problem. Let us examine the practice adopted by Hsin Hua Dictionary. They put words of the same sound-part in one group, then arranged them according to the order of strokes in the part governing the meaning of the character. This method looks all right but actually is not very practical because people who do not have enough knowledge of phonology and the construction of Chinese characters would have no way of distinguishing the

phonetic parts from the parts governing the meaning of the character.

Although there are a few more technical methods such as rules governing voiced and unvoiced consonants, sharp and rounded sounds, entering tones and others, these methods are far too technical for our vast masses to understand. I think it would be easier to determine the order of words of the same Romanization and the same tone by their forms. Although there is yet no unified method of checking words through the method of forms, we can either follow the rule of the initial strokes or the rule of the number of strokes. We might combine the above two methods. Once we have a unified method of checking Chinese words, through the method of word-forms, we could then change to the new method. Even if we do not change to the new method, it will not matter much. We can stick to the method of determining the order of words with the same Romanization and same tone by the number of strokes in each word. Of course, we understand it is very clumsy in counting strokes. Since there are not too many words with the same Romanization and the same tone, it should not be too bad. Furthermore, with one look we should know which word has more strokes than another. Actually, we do not need to count each time. In case there are two words with the same number of strokes, we could then decide their order according to the order of the initial stroke in each word. We could apply the same principles to those words with the same initial character and the same second character (of the same sound).

It seems to me that there is a certain unanimity among those who advocate the checking of Chinese words through phonetic sounds. The differences are not too much and problems are not too many. We should be able to find a more accurate phonetic method of checking Chinese characters so that people will have a definite rule to follow and the unification of phonetic methods of checking Chinese characters can be achieved.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN RESEARCH ON DEVELOPMENTAL
LAWS OF THE EARTH'S CRUST

[Following is a translation of an article by Ch'en Kuo-ta
(陳國達), Vice-President of the Scientific Research Department at the Chung-nan Mining and Metallurgical College, in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 30 May 1961, page 2.]

Within the scientific limits of geology and related peripheral sciences, the problems of the developmental laws of the earth's crust are regularly debated. These problems are basic and common to all geological studies as well as to physical geography and geo-physics. They are also practical problems directing our search for minerals. As a result, the discussion of these problems has a practical and scientific meaning.

The earth's crust is the object towards which people have to direct their production struggles and their fight against the earth. According to recent estimates the age of the earth is around 4.5 billion years. In such vast eons of time, the crust of the earth has, in its various individual parts, undergone many almost overwhelming changes. Under what laws have these changes taken place?

Over the centuries, in order to explain these phenomena, people have raised many different theories to explain these laws. But because understanding is transitional, each era's understanding of the phenomena is necessarily limited by the age's production level and exploration techniques. At the same time, these theories are usually based on material obtained from certain areas of the earth. They have paid relatively little attention to conditions in the vast territories of China.

Therefore, to this day there has not been one theory that can give an all-encompassing answer to the questions raised. This has been especially true regarding the structural make-up of the vast lands of China. There has not been a theory that can give a satisfactory solution.

Because the study of these problems is also closely related to certain basic philosophical problems, in the developmental history of geology there has always existed a contradiction between the dialectical materialistic point of view and the point of view of metaphysics and mechanicalism. Therefore, there is noticeably a very important meaning that we should use dialectic materialism as a guide in our inspection of old theories. We should inherit the accurate portions of these theories, do away with their errors to establish and develop our own new theory as a service to our national economy.

1. Examination of Old Theories through Active Participation in Production

Since the 19th century there have existed various types of theories regarding the laws of the development of the earth's crust. Based on their common points of argumentation, they may all be referred to as the "land groove-land plateau" theory.

This theory was first expounded by the American, J. Dana, in 1859, based on preliminary concepts raised by E. Hughes. Its basic concept lies in its contention that the crust of the earth is of two kinds. There are two and only two complete units in the earth's crust construction. These are called the "earth groove areas" and the "earth plateau areas." The activity nature of the former is very strong so we might call it the changeable area. In the beginning there were many ocean dips of great magnitude. These are called the earth grooves. In these there had been accumulations of large and thick stone strata. Later on, the pleating and folding action grew very intense, and these accumulations rose up to become high folding mountain ranges, such as the Himalayan Ranges.

The "earth plateau areas" were hardened areas, and were relatively stable in nature. They were the result of changes in the earth groove areas due to the gradual weakening of the motion.

At this stage the originally existing pleated mountain ranges had already been eroded by flowing water on the surface of the earth and other forces, and changed into a quasi-plain condition.

In the process of development of the earth plateaus, the principal activity was one of rise and fall, which created earth layers of uneven thickness which covered the accumulated layers of the grooves. These are typified by the Sung-liao Plains, the northern portion of Shensi, and the central portion of Szechwan.

This theory also believes that at the beginning of the earth's crust it was covered all over with earth groove areas. The age might be called a "pan-grooval era." After this, the groove areas gradually solidified and hardened and gradually changed to "earth plateau areas." As a result, there was a reduction in the scope of grooval areas and a gradual increase in the range of "earth plateau" areas. The last mentioned might be called the final form in the development of the earth's crust. It is one of pure expansion and is stable and unchanging.

They believe that development takes place as mentioned above. When it reached the plateau stage there were no further changes in the nature of earth crust and it gradually became senile. The appearance of "earth plateau areas" is the signal that the earth is senile. The earth's present status may be compared to the hardening of the various organs in the human body.

In the more than 100 years just past, this theory has been regarded as the basic theory of geology and other related peripheral sciences; a theory that is the truth and one that cannot be shaken.

In the developmental history of geology in China, particularly before the Liberation, the above theory was very prevalent. The "multiple ripple" explanation of this theory was especially utilized in this country. This

explanation utilized the above theory as its fundamental thesis. But to it has been added the "mountain screen formation theory" of Germany's H. Stiller. It lays special emphasis on the frequency of mountain formation activity. This is its main difference.

As a result of this, we have not been able to escape from the concept of "either an earth groove or an earth plateau" in our delineation of structural areas and in the manufacture of structural maps of the world. When we came across certain areas which we could neither classify as a groove or a plateau, as for instance the massive areas in the eastern part of China, we placed all of these areas into a classification known as areas of transition from the groove to the plain. They would insist that the "earth plateau" areas were very stable and are dead things. Only those areas that have reached this stage can be called "standard" earth plateaus, otherwise they should be called quasi-earth plateaus.

According to standards set by these people, only quasi-earth plateaus are of the "multiple ripple" form. The standard earth plateaus are of the mono-ripple form. These people are positive that in the development of the earth's crust, the start was the standard earth grooves and the end was the standard earth plateaus. According to this, they also set forth a formula for the law of the development of the earth's crust: standard earth groove -- quasi earth groove -- quasi earth plateau -- standard earth plateau.

In recent years people have discovered in many areas of the world innumerable facts that do not agree with this theory of the development of the earth's crust. Especially in the vast expanses of China, particularly after the Liberation, accompanying the great leap forward of production and the speedy development of exploration techniques, there has been an accumulation of large amounts of practical data that makes us believe that the "earth groove-earth plateau" theory (including the "multi-ripple" clique) in its accurate portions can only explain the formation process of the earth plateau areas. It can only explain and agree with certain stages of the development of the earth's crust. We should therefore accept it as having been helpful in determining a certain stage of geological development. This is the portion that we should inherit and positively accept.

But practical data also indicates that this theory is not all-encompassing, because it only explains a small segment of the developmental history of the earth's crust, and did not consider the two segments of history before the earth grooves and after the earth plateaus.

In actuality, the earth groove areas are not the beginning of the earth's crust. At the beginning of the earth, differences in the structural unity of the entire earth already existed. Prior to the earth groove stage certain continuous interchanges in the basic structural unities had already existed.

Taking Chinese geological and exploration materials as an example, in the earth groove areas of the Himalayan Mountains and the Chi-lien Mountains, as well as the earth plateau areas of Sung-liao, north Shensi, and Szechwan, there exists a crystallized basic layer of pien-ma ()

stone formations in the sinking of the earth grooves (sometimes directly under the sinking of the earth plateaus). These would indicate the existence of even earlier basic structural units.

On the other hand, neither are earth plateaus the end of earth crust development. After the earth plateau there followed the existence and development of other basic structural unities.

For instance, in the majority of eastern areas of China, certain accumulations that indicate formations that are newer than the basic structural unities of the earth plateaus exist.

Therefore, upon concrete analysis of concrete conditions, we can see that the theory of "earth groove - earth plateau" is localized in nature. It does not quite agree with the developmental history of the earth crust, particularly with regard to geological conditions in many areas of eastern China. As a result, it is not able to explain accurately the structural nature of this part of the world.

Because of the limited nature of the theory, from the production meaning point of view it cannot explain or accurately analyze the laws for the distribution of the vast structures and minerals with regard to time and space. As a result, it is not able to direct us accurately to the location of mineral deposits.

Regarding scientific development, it has merely divided the earth's structural form into earth groove and earth plateau areas. As for mineral deposits it has also divided the earth into the same two regions. This would certainly hinder the development of geological studies and prevent us from getting out from the rut of this kind of theoretical thinking. It will also hinder us from discovering new structural forms of mineral deposits.

From the philosophical point of view, the theory shows the development of the earth's crust to be a straight line: from simple motion to simple stability. When it had developed to earth plateaus, its structural nature was solidified and there was no longer any progress. The "multi-ripple" explanation also insists that the earth plateaus are very stable and dead. It also mixes things up by saying that the individual stages and individual structural phenomena of eastern China are the same as the earth groove movements and are a continuation of the same in their development. They deny that various developmental stages reflect changes in the nature of matter. They believe that this is merely a quantitative repetition of "mountain-forming" ripples.

This theory itemizes and describes the quantity and age of the many rippling movements in various areas of China. It furnishes a certain amount of data in our understanding of the development of the earth's crust. In this respect it has made a definite contribution. But it is not enough just to limit research to do just this because this "multiple ripple" is merely a surface phenomenon. The nature of these individual ripples in various places is necessarily the same. Since the method of this theory does not consider the incessant development of the earth's crust and does not analyze the qualitative and innate relationship between various stages of development, but merely itemizes surface phenomena, it is, of course, hard to explain the laws of the development of the earth's crust. Therefore,

this theory is not identical with the basic change and development principles of incessant movement of matter as propounded by dialectical materialism. This method of research is far from the research method of dialectical materialism.

2. New Understanding of Laws of the Development of the Earth's Crust

There has been a great deal of research concerning the new structural unities discovered after the "earth plateaus." These are called the "earth depressions," and are active areas. At first, in these places there were large areas of corresponding downdrops. These were mainly on land and are called "earth depressions." These movements generally produced thick layers of accumulations. After this, the pleating and folding grew more intense and formed fold-like mountain ranges. Some people thought this activity was the same as the formation of "earth grooves," and called this the "neo-earth groove" explanation.

Results of meticulous research show that although both the depressions and grooves are similar in nature, and the developmental processes are somewhat similar, each has its own distinguishable special characteristics, no matter whether you look at them from their geological or from their geophysical nature.

For instance, during the Paleozoic era (between 200 and 600 million years ago), the great majority of eastern China areas was definitely an earth plateau. But during the Mesozoic era (from 70 to 200 million years ago), there was the existence of noticeably strong movements that were not of the earth plateau type. As a result, a new activity area was found -- this was the "earth depression" area.

According to what we now know through research, this new structural unity existed not only in China, but also in other areas of East Asia, (for instance in the south and eastern part of Siberia) and also existed in vast expanses of other parts of the world such as Central Asia, East Africa, Europe, and North America. The discovery of this new structural unity proves that the "earth plateau areas" were definitely expanding, but also disintegrating. It was expanding with respect to replacing the gradual aging and weakening of the "earth groove" areas, but was disintegrating due to its being substituted by the gradual expansion of "earth depression" areas.

In order to explain this to those who believe that the earth plateaus undergo simple enlargement, are unchangably stable, and are the final form in the development of the earth's crust, people have called this change from "stable" earth plateaus to the new activity of the "earth depression areas," the "activation of earth plateaus." The theory that explains this process is the so-called theory of activation of earth plateaus or the earth depression theory.

As for ancient structural unities that existed before the "earth grooves," we have not been able to do enough research to clarify the situation. But according to existing data available from China and other related areas, it is possible that at least three different structural unities have

passed successively over the ages.

The oldest of these could have been the original primitive earth crust, formed of silicon and magnesium layers and which might be considered to be "stable" areas. In the middle of the Pacific Ocean, at the bottom, there seems to be certain formations which are left over from that period.

The other two ancient structural unities were formed from silicon and aluminum layers appearing in crystalline forms (such as the p'ien-ma stones, etc.). One of these was of the active type, where pleating and folding action was very strong. Perhaps we could temporarily call these "earth basin areas. The others are the "stable" areas, where, at that time, pleating and folding action was relatively mild. Certain of these, up until today, are near sea level. We might call these latter the "earth plain" areas. Both of these structural unities appear under the earth groove layers of accumulation. (Some even appear right underneath accumulations of the earth plateau and earth depressions layers), and are represented by the basic crystalline layers. For instance, those that are seen at Yin-shan, Liao-tung, Shantung, Shansi, and in the provinces along the southeastern coast.

Under the guidance of the Party, the teachers and students of the Chung-nan Mining and Metallurgical College have been summarizing the experiences of production participation through the universal search for mineral deposits. Based on the principal practical data obtained, we have been delving into the structural theory of the earth. We have unified our inheritance with what we have created in propounding our esculatory theory of the earth's crust activity changes. Based on our search for laws of the development of the earth's crust, we have obtained the following points of new understanding.

(A) The Earth's Crust Is Ever in the Midst of Development

From what we know at present, the process of development may be divided into six basic stages. They are the primitive original stage, the "earth basin [?] stage, the "earth plain" [?] stage, the "earth groove" stage, the "earth plateau" stage, and the "earth depression" stage. (Among these the "basin" and "plain" stages await our further meticulous research. The order mentioned here is temporary.) Each is typified by the special formation or speed of development of their corresponding structural unities. As a result, each has its own definitive nature of its matter. This shows that the developmental process of the earth crust is an incessant and unified process and one where the various stages of development complement each other.

We must point out, however, that there is no equilibrium in its development, and that it is multi-natured. We cannot look upon all the regions of the earth as having undergone the same number of stages. Neither can we assume that all parts of the world have originated and stopped development at the same time. There are definite differences in the various regions. The stages have also permeated into one another.

(B) The Fundamental Reason for the Development of the Earth's Crust Lies in the Struggle between Innate Contradictions

At the beginning of the gradual formation of the earth's crust, it already had many contradictions within itself. We can summarize these contradictions as those between the opposition of activity elements against the stability elements. Any portion of the earth's crust, in any geological era, when activity occupies a superior position over that of stability, and becomes effective in causing changes, we would call it an area of activity. On the other hand, when it is the other way around, there are also changes in the nature of the earth's crust, and the tendency turns to one of stability. This explains the fact that activity areas can change into "stability" areas and vice versa. This dialectic relationship is called "interchange of activity and stability."

(C) The Process of the Development of the Earth's Crust Is One of Quantitative and Qualitative Interchange

Because of the struggle of contradictions, in any stage of development there is always an interweaving of new effects with inherited effects. The new grows incessantly and the old is unceasingly senile and dying. Because of basic metabolism, new elements gradually grow stronger and occupy a superior position. The old elements are gradually reduced and make way for the effects of the new.

For instance, the changes from the earth groove to the earth plateau stages, and from the earth plateau to the earth depression stages, all pass through certain transitional stages, and amply explain this point. The development of the earth's crust takes place in this manner. Gradual changes turn to sudden abrupt changes. Quantitative changes lead to qualitative changes. Finally the change causes one structural unity to form into another that is entirely opposite to one's own nature. Such qualitative changes also cause further new quantitative changes, ad infinitum.

(D) The Development of the Earth's Crust Follows the Pattern of "Negation-Positiveness-Negation" in Its Procedure

For instance, the change from the earth groove area into an earth plateau area is the process of negation of the activity area. Whereas the change from earth plateau area to earth depression area is the result of the process of negation of stability areas, and change once more into an activity area.

We must point out, however, the new activity area of the earth depressions is not a plain and simple reversion to the activity areas of the earth groove stage, and inherited certain of its contents (as represented by the residues of individual structural strata) to form its own structural parts and the basis for its development. At the same time, it has increased the formation of its own new unique structures (new structural

strata, that is, accumulated sinking layers of the earth depressions) and characteristics.

Because of this, it had merely repeated certain characteristics of the earth grooves on top of the higher basis. Actually it had even more complicated structures and had entered into a higher phase of development. The relationship between other new and old structural unities is similar to this.

From this we can see that the development of the earth's crust is always progressing. In different developmental stages it has different natures. The process is one which switches between the contradiction of the activity phase with the stability phase. It is one in which the two mutually replace each other according to the formula of "negation--positiveness--negation." It is one where quantitative change leads to qualitative change and gradual change leads to abrupt changes, from the simple form to the complicated, and from the low level to the high level stage. It follows the spiral route and an "S" shaped road, going along its wavy way along the escalator.

These general laws of the development of the earth's crust may be called the "escalator" law. (The escalator law of activity-stability changes.)

As for the fundamental reason for the activity-stability cycle and the escalator-type of development of the earth's crust, according to what we know at present, they could be related to the laws of accumulation and dissipation of radiation heat energy. This kind of theorization is related to the newest theories of the earth's origin.

We believe that a further investigation of these general laws would not only be beneficial to our understanding of time-space distribution laws regarding those structural unities, and mineral deposits, determine the direction of our mineral search, but also to our discovery of mineral deposit structural forms. It will also help to explain the consolidated nature and variformed nature of mineral deposits in earth depression areas, and allow us to understand the reason and formative laws of our country's mineral wealth. It will also smash to pieces the so-called theory that "although China's area is vast, she does not have much material wealth."

Of course, the escalator development theory is not good enough to serve as a theory for a growing science. There are many problems that will have to be solved through scientific research from now on.

DISCUSSIONS ON ALKALINE LAND IMPROVEMENT

[Following is a translation of a news item in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 19 June 1961, page 1.]

The Honan Branch of the Academia Sinica, together with the Honan Provincial Scientific Technology Federation and the Honan Agricultural College recently sent joint invitations to over 30 scientific workers in 15 related units to a conference to discuss the prevention and improvement of alkaline land.

All participating units and scientific workers had already been doing thorough investigative research on salt-alkaline land districts. Nine units presented theses or reports at the conference.

They summarized these theses and reports and discussed problems through analysis of Honan's alkaline land, especially with regard to the occurrence, development, prevention, and improvement measures to be taken concerning this phenomenon in Honan.

The participants were unanimous in the opinion that Honan is situated in various areas served by the Yellow River Irrigation System; that regenerative alkalination in this area is expanding; that the irrigation's land alkalination, occurrence, and expansion are influenced by rainfall, evaporation, soil, water, geological and other natural conditions.

They also believe that rough tilling methods and lack of necessary water carry-off measures have jointly caused the underground water and sub-soil alkali content to rise, and with the rise of underground water to concentrate the alkali in the surface soil.

The principal cause of regenerative alkalination of the soil is, therefore, the rising underground water level. However, they also felt that the main motivation of this phenomenon is due to the Yellow River overflowing and route-changing.

This overflowing and route changing have caused the formation of large pieces of sand-alkali layers and colloidal mud layer. Between the two layers there is also a layer which does not allow permeation of water. This prevents surface water from seeping and circulating.

The river water easily dissolves large amounts of salts and flows from a high position to low-lying bogs. Through evaporation and concentration, alkaline matter is allowed to remain on the surface of the land. Therefore, high alkalination land is concentrated on the two banks of the old river routes. The closer the land is to the Yellow River, the higher the alkali concentration will be.

According to their analysis and research, in this changing of water

level, the occurrence and development of alkalized land takes place in three stages; namely, the surface soil layers accumulate salts, the whole soil layers accumulate salts, and concentration and evaporation of underground water raises the salt content. This concentration of salt content in the underground water is the indicator of the development and intensification of alkalination.

Regarding preventive measures, they are of the belief that both conservation measures and farm technological measures should be taken simultaneously. If the latter cannot catch up with the former, water conservation measures will not be strengthened.

Regarding water conservation measures, of course appropriate construction and incessant improvement of irrigation water conditions are very important in reducing underground water replenishment. But measures for controlling and lowering the level of underground water would fundamentally change the conditions for the development of regenerative alkalination in the soil of the irrigation district and make underground water go below and deeper than the "brink" level establishing a new equilibrium.

As for farm technology measures, the participants believe that it will not do to omit either prevention or cures or improvement of land that has been already alkalized.

Regarding these agricultural measures, especially regarding seedling and harvest protection, the masses have a complete set of good experiences. Based on the salt content distribution rules they have been able to create low salt circumstances for seedling germination when the general conditions are high salt in nature. They can also avoid the encroachment by alkalinity altogether.

For instance, the alternate planting of oats and cotton, wheat and millet, are experiences of their success. At the same time, the selection of alkali-resistant strains will also lead to good harvests.

In alkalized areas, the largest planting of these relatively alkali-resistant crops consists mainly of cotton. Next come kaoliang, black beans, oats, and wheat, etc.

In their active participation in production, they also selected many strongly alkali-resistant stock seeds for germination and breeding, for instance, "soda"-wheat and "soda"-millet, etc.

Everybody was of the belief that the planting of rice would achieve high yields and simultaneously allow the water to wash away the salt content of the soil, change the soil nature, and dilute the underground water salt content. Of course, this planting can only be used as a means of improving salt land and should not be used indiscriminately for the enlargement of the planting area.

In order to connect academic research with on-the-spot investigation, it was decided on mutual agreement to ask the Honan Branch of the Academia Sinica to be responsible for the organization of the "Honan Province Consolidated Alkalized Land Prevention and Improvement Inspection Team" consisting of specialized personnel from the water conservancy, hydraulic geology, agriculture, and soil departments. Groups of inspectors will take one month to visit the Eastern and Northern Honan

Irrigation Districts. Upon completion of their inspection, they will write their report and prepare a plan for consolidated prevention, improvement, and utilization of alkalinized land in Honan.

LOOKING INTO CLIMATIC CHANGES IN KUNMING DURING THE PAST 30 YEARS

[Following is a translation of an unsigned article in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 21 June 1961, page 1.]

How is it possible that Kunming's weather is "all year-round spring?" In the past 30 years there has been a tendency toward colder and dryer weather. What about the future? In the 9 June issue of the Yunnan Jih-pao, there is a feature article by the Yunnan Meteorological Research Institute which delves into the problem.

The article makes an analysis based upon meteorological data available for the past 30 years. The average annual temperature in Kunming during the past 30 years has been 15.6°C ; the lowest was 14.9 and the highest was 16.6°C . These figures are both within plus-minus one degree of the average.

Looking from the annual mean temperature, we do not see any change in the special characteristics of Kunming's weather. However, in the past ten years, particularly in the past five years, there has been a small but definite lowering of the temperature. This is the "change" within a state of stability.

In the 30 years, the coldest month has been January, averaging 9.3° . The hottest has been July, averaging 20.2° . The mean difference (or annual mean difference) has been 10.9° . However, in the past ten years the average temperature for all January's has been 8.3° , while the average for the months of July has been 19.9° with a mean difference of 11.3° ; thus, in the last ten years the mean annual difference has increased 0.4° . This is another "change" in the state of stability.

As for the distribution of rain in the past 30 years, there has been a slighter decrease in the average rainfall in the past ten years than in the past 30 to 50 years. However, distribution of rainfall, in most years, has been more or less normal. There is a slight increase in rainfall in spring and fall, accompanied by decreased rainfall in summer.

According to their analysis, it is believed that, in the next several score, or even 100 years, Kunming's weather will be like the present and remain "spring all year round."

The article also introduces the main reasons for Kunming's having all year round spring weather. Temperature changes within the year at Kunming range within 10.9° . (It is over 30° in Peiping.) Therefore, there is little difference between hot weather and cold weather. This, first of all, is due to the low latitude that Kunming occupies. Heat-cold changes are not so great here as they are in higher latitudes.

Second, between November of each year and April of the following year, Kunming is situated within the limits of strong westerly wind currents. These strong currents carry western Yunnan and Northern Indian peninsula's continental dry and warm air to Kunming. Therefore, during these months there are more clear days and less cloudy ones. There is more sunshine and a relatively high temperature. Even in the severest winter it always is as warm as springtime.

From May to October of each year, the southwesterly warm wet air from the southwest of Yunnan and the Indian Ocean replaces the warm dry air of continental India. The air is saturated with water vapor. Therefore rainfall is plentiful, there is little sunshine, and it is usually cloudy. This, of course, reduces the heat due to the northerly shift of the sunshine. Excess rainfall also reduces surface heat. Therefore, in the extreme summer, the temperature is not high.

Then, also, although Kunming is situated at such a low latitude, it is placed on a plateau at a high altitude. The rise in temperature is not as extreme as at low altitudes. The east-west mountain range situated on the northeast of Kunming serves as a screen to stop the cold air from coming in from Siberia.

Aside from these facts, Tien-chih Lake has a definite influence on the urban climate of Kunming. In the daytime the lake water absorbs heat causing a slower rise in the atmospheric temperature. The southwesterly wind blows cool air from the lake to the city.

At night, the heat held by lake water is released and exchanges places with the cool air inside the city, replacing the atmospheric water content. This allows proper adjustment of the temperature and humidity.

WHY SHOULD WE DISCUSS THE NATURE OF PSYCHOLOGY?

[Following is a translation of a feature article by Ts'ao Jih-ch'ang (曹日昌) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 2 June 1961, page 2.]

It seems very strange that nobody has ever doubted psychology. The problem of whether it belongs to the natural sciences or the social sciences has been debated by psychologists recently, but so far no conclusion has been reached. That is very unusual for any kind of science. Only scholars in the field of formal logics have been discussing the objects and functions of that course.

The reason why scholars in the field of formal logic are discussing the objects and functions of the course is their desire to develop its functions for the service of socialism. Because of the same reason, we should also discuss the nature of psychology.

Since 1958 our psychologists have held several scholarly critiques in which the direction of future study was decided and research relating to the actual situation, in addition to studies of theories, were emphasized. In the past few years, good results in the field of educational psychology, medical psychology, and labor psychology have been achieved. For example, the study of the improvement of teaching efficiency in the field of educational psychology has opened a new road for educational reforms. The coordination and cooperation between medical psychologists and medical workers have resulted in a fast treatment through combinations of Chinese and Western medical sciences, thus creating a great effect in our medical work. The improvement of working methods in the factories initiated by labor psychologists as well as their studies on technical reforms has created favorable effects in the raising of labor efficiency.

It is necessary for us to study the new problems created during our work, but it is also necessary for us to make a more advanced study of problems we have already started so as to make psychology more useful. In order to study such problems, old and new, psychologists must first settle the problem of what and how to do research before they can get into more advanced study and get more results. That is why we must discuss the nature of psychology because the nature of a course involves the objects and methodology.

Here I wish to discuss some of my personal views. Let us start from some concrete problem. For example, in the field of educational psychology, we have had studies on the earlier teaching of some teaching materials. We have rewritten the part on quadratic equations which usually

were taught in high schools and used it in the senior classes of grade schools. The results proved the superior learning ability of grade school students. This is very interesting research which, on the one hand, points out the future of our educational reforms on teaching efficiency through reorganization of teaching materials, thus increasing the knowledge of students without adding any more burdens to them; on the other hand, it points out that the learning ability of children is not so simple, as we used to think, so that they could not handle such abstract thinking like algebra and other subjects.

Actually, the development of children's thinking ability on abstract things is mainly determined by their education, teaching methods, and teaching progress. These educational reforms have raised several problems in psychology such as the fitness of certain courses like algebra and geometry to be taught to a certain grade. Also, there are both slow and fast students in each class. The more you raise the teaching standard and progress of the class, the bigger the difference between those slow and fast students will be. How should we handle this difference in ability among students? The former problem involves the level of psychological development. The latter concerns the problem of difference between individuals.

In regard to our research in labor psychology, we have combined this research with our movement for the improvement of the quality of our products by participating in the study of labor efficiency relating to the inspection of more exact and fine machinery. During the inspection of such fine machinery, inspectors must find faults within one-thousandth of a millimeter or less. Usually only a few people have such training to be capable of successfully performing such duties. Now the problem is how to make more people capable of handling such jobs. From a psychological point of view, this is a problem of sensitivity.

In the field of medical psychology, during our practice of combining Chinese and Western medicine, we must relieve the psychological burden from the patients by giving them the necessary knowledge of our treatments and their diseases, thus making them happy and arousing their fighting spirit against illness. This psychological approach, in coordination with medicines and treatments, usually gets good results. Now we have a problem here. Did this psychological effect directly affect the patient's physical illness and cure it? Was it the psychological effect which created favorable conditions for the medicines and treatments to cure the patient's disease? This is a problem relating to the mutual effect between psychological and physiological factors.

How are we going to do research on such problems relating to the development of the children's minds, difference in individual ability, sensitivity, and the relationship between psychology and physiology? It seems as though we could do research from different approaches. We could consider the development of children's minds to be a matter of education and effects of teaching. We could consider difference in students' learning ability to be the result of their learning attitude. Then we could try to judge the effects on the students' mental development and learning

attitude under different educational environments. In regard to inspection of fine machinery, we could improve labor efficiency by initiating competition and encouraging the workers' sense of responsibility. We could compare patients of different emotions and outlooks after we put them under the same treatments. All the methods mentioned above belong to methodology of social science. To adopt these methods implies that psychology is a branch of social science.

It is possible to consider the mental development of human beings to be a natural process so that not only are differences in individual ability the results of individual talent, but sensitivity is also decided by the physiological characteristics of one's organs. In handling the relationship between psychology and physiology, we could consider it to be a problem involving mental condition and physiological process without getting into the cause of such mental condition. To follow this line of thinking is to treat psychology as a pure natural science.

Employing both approaches will get worthwhile results (we have no objection to this research). However, they are not all the approaches we have.

Both education and teaching are major factors affecting the mental development of children. This has been proved by our numerous educational reforms. Once we have raised the quality of our teaching and the standard in the mental development of children is improved, effective educational measures must be based on the level of children's mental development. We could not possibly ask children in kindergarten to learn algebra because natural maturity is also important. We have recently made some studies on the development of electric waves in children's brains. We found the following results: in children from four to five years old, the slow wave has not taken shape; in children from six to seven years old, the slow wave has already taken shape; in those who are 12 to 14 years old, the same slow wave has taken shape which they will have as adults. We think this kind of material should serve as good reference for the study of children's mental development.

In order to get a complete understanding of children's mental development, we must study both educational conditions and the maturity of their brains. Of course, we still know very little about the mental development of children as well as the maturity of their brains. We have to make more advanced studies.

The differences in children's learning abilities in most cases were due to their education and other circumstantial factors. For example, some students did not have a good foundation, did not get good study methods, did not have enough time for review, and other reasons. But there are slow students who failed because of other reasons than those above. Those students could not possibly be helped by indoctrination or special assistance. Their failures were due to many psychological and physiological reasons which should be handled differently. Human beings are different from the day they are born. Education can reduce or increase such differences. Therefore, we should make research on the forming of such differences and the rule governing its development.

In regard to the improvement of sensitivity, we suggest the study of that problem by the comparative approach and by finding the functioning of children's sense of vision such as differentiation, restraint, guiding, and others. As for the relationship between psychology and physiology, we should start working on the problems of thinking, emotion, mental condition, and the control of nerves. These are just preliminary ideas. We have to wait for future results before determining the effectiveness of these methods.

Based on the studies of the above four problems, psychology should not be a pure social science or a pure natural science because it involves problems in both fields. In my opinion, psychology is a study with both the nature of social science and natural science. It could be called a medium science or a crossed science.

Some people thought that one of the characteristics of human mental condition is the ability to control it by the society or its social control. In other words, they considered human mental activity to be a social phenomenon. Therefore, the study of psychology should be a course in social science. This theory is not satisfactory. The determination of the nature of a course does not depend on whether the phenomenon of the object of the study is in human society or not. It depends upon whether such phenomenon follows the rules of social development or the rules of natural organic movement. In one's mental condition no doubt there are a lot of things which follow the rules of social development, such as the quality of thinking, the forming of personal interest, the developing of abilities, and others. This fact explains that psychology does have the characteristics of the social sciences.

However, the major problem of a psychological study is the subjective reactions in human brains toward objective things which were conveyed to human brains through organs of sensitivity. The activity of human brains is controlled by the society and human brains were formed by the progress under which men progressed from the status of monkeys to the forming of society, the practice of manual labor, and the introduction of languages. In other words, human brains are the products of society. However, the reacting activity of human brains is still the activity of the brains for the development of higher and more perfect organs. There are many common constructive features as well as common rules of activity between human brains and brains of animals with complex organisms. However, there are differences between human brains and brains of those animals as well as different rules of their activities. The rules governing the reaction of human brains are the rules of the organic movement of their brains.

Can psychologists ignore the study of the activities of human brains? No. This is one of the studies in their field. Theoretically speaking, in order to help dialectic materialism conquer idealism, psychologists must substantially explain how organs produced ideas and that ideas are the products of highly organized organs, as well as the relationship between the reacting activities of human brains and the movement of organs in the brains. Once we had a comrade who studied the process of understanding the four operations in arithmetic among grade school stu-

dents. He observed how those students gradually comprehended the concepts of adding and subtracting and how they learned to solve questions involving two figures. He made a detailed analysis of students' understanding of all factors and relationships involved in arithmetic, and offered explanations of all advanced nerve activities involving generalization, differentiation, and restraint. I consider this comrade's research very worth while but someone thought that this comrade's employment of advanced rules on nerve activities was not necessary. In my opinion, since we do not have enough knowledge about the inner organic activities of human brains for the explanation of the development of the thinking process, we might postpone such explanations for the time being.

However, from a psychological point of view, it is necessary to know the inner activities in the brains during any mental process. If we only study the expanding and deepening of a concept, our results might easily be utilized by idealists. For example, idealists of the Hegel school used these materials to prove their theories. Therefore, for the sake of ideological struggle, our psychologists must study the rules governing the inner activities of the brain, and only by understanding those rules can they further understand the mental development of children, the difference in students' learning abilities, changes in sensitivity, and rules relating to the relationship between psychology and physiology, thus adopting more economical and more effective measures in practical applications and promoting the improvement of mental development, understanding, and sensitivity.

The rules governing the activities of a human brain are actually the rules governing the movement of its inner organs, which is materially a problem of natural science. Therefore, psychology has something to do with both social science and natural science. If we take out the element of natural science from psychology, we are actually destroying psychology.

II. SOCIOLOGICAL

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CENTRAL-SOUTHERN COLLEGE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

[Following is a translation of a news report in Kuang-ming
Jih-pao, Peiping, 4 June 1961, page 1.]

The Central-Southern College of Science and Technology was established at Canton on 1 June 1961. It is a five-year multiple-department college of science and engineering which came into being through the combination of the Kwangtung College of Science and Technology, the Hupeh College of Science and Technology, and the Canton College of Engineering. It is under the control of the Central-Southern Branch of the Chinese Academy of Sciences.

There are five departments in the college: physics, chemistry, biology, mechanical engineering, and electrical engineering, altogether 11 special fields.

IN THE CENTRAL NATIONALITIES COLLEGE

[Following is a translation of an unsigned article in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 11 June 1961, page 1.]

This year, 11 June was the Tenth Anniversary of the Central Nationalities College's establishment. The Central Nationalities is one of the schools that the Party and the State use to train cadres for the minority nationalities. At present, it has four departments: political science, language, history, and arts. It also has two sections of preparatory school. There are now over 2,780 students of various nationalities attending this college. This enrollment is an increase of nine times over that when the college was first established.

During the last ten years, more than 3,930 students have graduated from the Central Nationalities College, including young people coming from 49 nationalities.

At present, the teachers, students, and staff members, under the Party's guidance, are carrying out the further implementation of the Party's educational policy and are putting forth great efforts to raise the quality of teaching.

Since 1958, the Central Nationalities College has edited 18 volumes of dictionaries for the various nationalities. Originally, Uighur and Kazakh students did not know the Chinese language. But after they studied the Chinese language from these dictionaries, they are now able to read Chinese and technical books.

The Arts Department was established in 1959. It especially trains art students of the minority nationalities.

THE PUBLICATION OF A CHINESE-RUSSIAN DICTIONARY

[Following is a translation of a news report in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 6 June 1961, page 1.]

Recently the Commercial Press published a Chinese-Russian volume of a Chinese-Russian dictionary that has been edited in China. It consists of about 104,000 phrases and about 7,000,000 words. The single words and their meanings are selected from three principal Russian dictionaries, published by the Soviet Union; namely, A Complete Russian Dictionary, by "Wu-sha-k'o-fu," the Russian Language Dictionary, first and second volumes (the materials in the third and fourth volumes have not been used), published by the Soviet Academy of Sciences, in four volumes, and the Soviet Union's Foreign Language Dictionary.

In addition, several thousand single words also have been selected from the Soviet Union's encyclopedia. As many phrases, idioms, and slang as possible in the Complete Russian Dictionary, the Russian Language Dictionary, first and second volumes, have been selected. After the names of animals and plants, the Latin scientific terms have also been added. The general scientific and technical terms have also been added. Based on the special terms in the various sciences published by the Chinese Academy of Sciences recently and the various scientific dictionaries, these scientific terms are provided with explanations. At the end of the book, there is a table for the conjugation of irregular verbs and other tables containing important geographical names and regularly used Russian given names (middle names and pet names.) This Chinese-Russian dictionary was edited by Liu Tse-yung (劉澤榮).

CHUNGKING UNIVERSITY IMPROVES ITS GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

[Following is a translation of a news report by Chiang Tsu-heng (蔣子恆) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 15 June 1961, page 2.]

The Metallurgy Department of the University of Chungking has achieved initial results in its reforms of graduation requirements by considering the demands of our educational plans and by adopting the experiences from the past graduation requirements.

That department of the university has considered the improvement of its graduation requirements to be the key to the improvement of the quality of its graduates. Its graduation requirements usually consisted of a special thesis and other general studies for each graduate. All the special theses were chosen from scientific research assigned by the State, the important problems of production, and the important problems of the university-established factory.

Each graduate was assigned a special topic on which to write a thesis according to his own qualifications; all these theses were related to a common theme which was adopted for the solution of quality problems and the variety problems in current steel production. Other parts of the graduation requirements involved the basic demands of mathematics, the basic training in specialized science and technology, and practical reconstruction planning for iron and steel foundries. Up to this moment, senior students of the university have completed most of their theses and other requirements. According to the 15 technical conclusions, special analyses, and investigation reports, those senior students, by joining production and cooperating with workers and technical personnel, have improved the production of iron converters, have increased the quantity and quality of pig iron, have contributed the solution of key problems in production, and have won the praises of all agencies concerned.

During the process of fulfilling their graduation requirements, those senior students invited the responsible technical personnel to give lectures on "the organization and planning of industrial economy," "the establishment and working of metallurgical industry," and other topics. In this way they improved their understanding of the plan and policy of our national economy and enriched their knowledge of actual production. The departments concerned also arranged for them to participate in the academic discussions such as "the application of rare metals in the refining of steel," "the one-step refining of steel from ores," "the consolidated use of magnetic vanadium, titanium, and steel," and other topics, in order to

improve their technical knowledge. In addition to the coordination of their graduation requirements and the assignments of readings in foreign languages, an oral examination in defense of each student's thesis was held and a general evaluation of each student's studies was scheduled.

All the graduate requirements of senior students were carried out under the supervision of instructors and professors. Eighteen experienced teachers were selected to work with the senior students in deciding topics for special research and plans and in joining the production in workshops for collecting research material. From the very beginning, the responsibility of each teacher was made very clear to him and a very strict system of checking on both the tutor and the student was established.

In order to improve the quality of the graduation requirements, in addition to periodic checkings, the Party leadership, the administration, and the faculty of the university organized work groups to visit the factories where the senior students worked, checking their studies, thinking, and lives as many as five times. At the very beginning, they carefully checked their plans and preparations, making clear to everybody concerned the importance of graduation requirements and insisted on practical planning as well as the successful completion of those requirements. If any lag was discovered, measures such as visiting students and solving academic and production problems were taken to assure the smooth development of the whole plan.

SUPPORT GIVEN TO TEACHING FACULTY BY THE SUPPORTING
SERVICES OF FU-TAN UNIVERSITY OF SHANGHAI

[Following is a translation of a news article in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 24 June 1961, page 1.]

The supporting services at Fu-tan University of Shanghai such as the university library, laboratories, university press, mess halls, university health agency, and others, have coordinated closely with the faculty of the university in order to create favorable teaching conditions for both the students and faculty of the university.

Since the beginning of this semester, the support services at the university have changed their past attitude of "waiting for their customers to come to their doors" by regularly visiting different departments in order to have a better understanding of the needs of students and faculty as well as taking the initiative in coordinating the teaching of the university.

In the library of this university of nearly 10,000 students, there are from 2,000 to 3,000 books loaned out every day, almost double the number in the same month of last year. The library staff has handled their jobs in an orderly way without any confusion; they have compiled a complete list of reference books for the use of both students and faculty. Before the beginning of the semester, the library prepared all the books and reference books necessary for all departments and immediately after the beginning of the semester all these books were distributed to students of each class through the method of collective loans.

Whenever the university started any campaign for the promotion of a certain mission assigned by the State, the library staff would take the initiative in coordinating the propaganda work. For example, when students emphasized scientific research, the library would loan them scientific books. In case there were more students borrowing the same kinds of books, thus creating a shortage of books, the library staff would visit the departments concerned and find out the students' progress as well as their requirements before deciding on measures for a more reasonable distribution of those books. For example, since Furness's General Physics is the basic textbook for the Physics Department, the library has arranged to supply each student of that department one such textbook while supplying students of other departments General Physics written by other authors, thus satisfying the demands of the major department and at the same time meeting the demands of the other general departments.

In the field of scientific reference, the library has handled its

work according to the nature of different departments. Since students of liberal arts usually demanded books of a broader field, more variety, and larger quantity, the library tried to get as many sets and kinds of books as possible for them. Students from the College of Science usually asked for more difficult and newer books so the library has always supplied them with the newest technical references.

In order to meet the demands of senior students, the library has established special rooms for "research on Lu Hsun" and "research on Latin America." On the eve of every examination, the library always had all reference books ready for the use of students who wanted to make their final preparations before their tests. During holidays and vacations, the library has recommended useful books to students based on students' needs.

There are several hundreds of students doing experiments in laboratories of different departments every day. The assistants in laboratories usually carefully study the requirements and contents of the experiments and make the necessary preparations for students in order to assure the smooth running of those experiments. Staffs of all the support services at the university have tried their very best to improve the quantity and quality of their services. In the past, the printing of lecture notes at the university press was not clear. After the workers of the press changed to lead-type printing, they conquered the difficulties in techniques, materials, and equipment and have succeeded in printing whole books of lecture notes. The staff of the mess halls has regularly visited the students and faculty to inquire about their opinions for the improvement of meals served at the university. The Health Department has recently given each teacher and student a complete physical check-up and has developed a campaign for the prevention of summer diseases. Other departments such as the Administrative Department, etc., are also trying their best to do their jobs in order to support the teaching of the university.

IMPROVE LIBRARY WORK; ENERGETICALLY SERVE TEACHING

[Following is the translation of an article by Ho-fei Teachers College Party Committee in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 11 June 1961, page 2.]

Since the beginning of this semester, the library of the Peiping Aviation Academy has actively improved its service quality and created a better environment for studying so that the library has become an ideal place for the teachers to prepare their lectures and for the students to prepare their lessons.

During the winter vacation this year, all the staff members of the library, with the assistance of the students, moved together all the book stack rooms and reading rooms that were scattered over the school in several places, concentrating at the third and fourth floors of a large classroom building. After the concentration, the floor space of the reading room was expanded, seats have been increased, the environment is quieter, and the teachers and students feel that it is more convenient than before.

In their work, the staff members of the library have exerted their subjective spirit. One time the library's purchasing officer saw a set of peak science books which had just arrived at the bookstore. One of the volumes in the set was urgently needed for instruction in the school. But the store had one set of books only, and this set had been ordered by another unit. So he asked two teachers from the school and went to the store to look at this set of books. They agreed that the school was in urgent need of this set of books. The library borrowed it from the bookstore and copied it with a typewriter, guaranteeing that the needs in teaching would be met. The library also delivers books to sick and old teachers, while those teachers who are too busy preparing their lectures may call the library on the telephone and have the books they need sent to them. As far as the books needed for teaching are concerned, if this library does not have them, the staff members will go all over Peiping to all sister libraries to borrow them. They also accept the related units' trust to edit a monthly Index of Foreign Language Aviation Periodicals and the indefinite Index of Chinese Periodicals to satisfy the needs inside and outside the school.

The staff members of the Ho-fei Teachers College Library have surrounded teaching, promoted numerous activities, and actively served the teachers and students.

In order to make the books the library has purchased meet the

teaching needs, the staff members regularly penetrate the various departments and study rooms to ask the opinions of the teachers so that they can decide what books they should buy. In order to insure that the books will reach the teachers and students, the cataloging method has been simplified, and the books are catalogued as soon as they arrive. At the same time, in order to coordinate the progress of teaching in the various departments and various course, the reference room is fully stacked with reference books for the students to study. When there are very few duplicate copies of certain books and when they are in great demand, borrowing is restricted and all the available copies are put in the reference room for the students to read there. They have strengthened relations with other libraries inside and outside of the province, to borrow outside books to meet the needs of teaching.

This library has given much help to the students' reading. Besides recommending new books and introducing good books, attention is paid to the compilation of teaching materials for the teachers' and students' reference reading. In order to help the Party Committee perform its ideological educational activities, they have opened a reading room for Chairman Mao Tse-tung's writings. They have pasted clippings together that are related to the learning from the Selected Works of Chairman Mao Tse-tung to serve as reference materials for the students when they are studying these writings.

THE STRENGTHENING OF TEACHERS' ASSISTANCE TO STUDENTS

[Following is the translation of a news report by Kuo Yao-tsu (郭耀祖) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 13 June 1961, page 2.]

The Industrial College of Harbin has pressured teachers into strengthening their assistance to students' extracurricular work. During this semester, teachers teaching "refining techniques," "the cooling and pressuring of steel plates," and "special steel-cutting methods" were pressured into increasing their assistance to senior students who were required to take those new courses. Before the offering of these courses, teachers of these courses held discussions with students and found out that students demanded more extracurricular assistance. Later, after discussions and investigations, it was discovered that such assistance would help the students to digest the theories they had studied in the classrooms to lead them towards better and harder studies and to broaden their knowledge.

In order to strengthen extracurricular assistance to students, the college mobilized all available teachers to squeeze some time in order to help students on those problems which they did not learn in the class and to lead them towards more advanced research. Visiting groups were organized in order to improve the students' actual knowledge. For example, after students were taught the cooling and pressuring methods of steel plates, they were taken to the Harbin Electrical Instrument Factory to study more advanced knowledge on modes, quality control, and the installation of cutting machines, and other knowledge.

For the sake of broadening the students' knowledge, the college also paid much attention to the students' Russian language and extracurricular activities. Teachers regularly introduced books and periodicals in Russian which were suitable to the students' academic levels, and enthusiastically helped students to solve problems which they discovered in these readings. Recently, a report meeting was organized by teachers to lecture on the newest steel foundry equipment in Russia and to exhibit blueprints and designs of that equipment. After explaining the content of certain topics to the students, the teachers usually raised a few related questions in order to help the students to consolidate the theories studied in the classrooms. These questions would serve as reviews for students, which were discussed thoroughly with the teachers. For example, after the teachers lectured on the refinery techniques, they assigned six students to work on the topic of gas devices. Students who went through many refer-

ence books eventually learned all the advantages and disadvantages of such a device. Those students who had seen such a device in factories lectured to other students about its practical applications.

Teachers also encouraged the students to do difficult independent research. Whenever a student asked a question, the teacher did not answer right away but instead asked the student some questions which were based upon the students' knowledge and ability of doing independent research, in order to develop the students' ability for independent thinking. For example, in the course of "special steel-cutting methods," teacher Ao Wei-ssu (敖維斯) usually asked students who knew very little about basic theories some theoretical questions relating to general theories and helped those who were weak in understanding the subject studies to get a more systematic understanding of the subject matter. In addition to assigning few reference books to the class, the teacher usually assigned special reference books to those students who had better ability to learn.

This assistance of extracurricular studies has promoted the students' desire to learn more than they already have. Every student in the above-mentioned courses has two or three Russian reference books. Some students have even organized study groups to study several technical and complicated subjects with the help of Russian reference materials.

THE IMPORTANCE OF BASIC COURSES

[Following is a translation of an article by Ch'en Te-ho
(陳德和) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 13 June 1961,
page 2.]

Students of the 60th class at the Department of Electrical Engineering in the Harbin Industrial College have recently changed their ideas about basic theoretical courses. They are now paying attention to the study of basic theories.

Last semester students of that class began their courses in "advanced mathematics," "basic electrical engineering," and "introduction of electric instruments." Some students did not pay so much attention to the advanced mathematics and basic electrical engineering as they did to introduction of electric instruments because they did not think the former were closely related to their special field. Some students failed to hand in their mathematics exercises and neglected to review those subjects which they did not know too well in the basic electrical engineering class. Fortunately, the situation is changed now. The teacher in charge of advanced mathematics has praised the speed and quality of their work. Basic electrical engineering is now the most popular course in the department. Considering the results of the first test last month, it is obvious that most student know the theories and the general concepts of electrical engineering very well. The results in the new Russian course are also very encouraging.

This change began at the end of last semester. At that time, when students participated in a certain scientific research project, they had serious difficulties because of their foundation in theories. When student Lu I-ho (呂一禾) worked on circuit experiments, he failed. After the teacher explained to him the basic principle of electricity, he immediately figured out the design of the required circuit system. Other similar cases have convinced students of the importance of basic theories. Therefore, since last semester, students have spent more and more time reading calculus, the magnetic lines, electronics, and other books.

When students had difficulties this semester, the Party leadership helped them to analyze the reasons and discovered that students did not learn enough theories in the classes offered last semester. So students are now required to review what they missed last semester as well as paying attention to theories. They are also getting help from students in advanced classes who are serving as their tutors.

Under the present system, not only must students listen carefully

to lectures but they must also review old courses with the help of reference books. They are not supposed to let any problem pass which they do not quite understand. Once a teacher used a mathematical formula which they had not studied before. Immediately after the class, students went to the library to work on the mathematics books until they thoroughly understood the formula. Once student Ch'eh Yen-ch'un could not solve a mathematics problem. He thought that since this problem was so important, he might later cause damage to the State if he did not learn it. Then he worked very hard to have a complete understanding of the problem. Some students even used different methods to solve mathematical or theoretical problem in order to achieve a thorough understanding of the problem. Some students reported also the reasons why they made mistakes in solving mathematical or theoretical problems even after their teachers had already corrected their papers.

ACHIEVEMENTS AND INFLUENCE OF SHOWING CHINESE MOTION PICTURES

[Following is the translation of an article by Wada of Japan, originally printed in Akahataho (Red Flag Newspaper), Tokyo, 25 May 1961, translated into Chinese by Tu Chen (屠 晨), and reprinted in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 21 June 1961, page 3.]

Aside from The White-Haired Woman, not a single Chinese motion picture has been imported and distributed by motion picture merchants. It has been one and a half years since our nation's democratic organizations have officially adopted the method of self-managed showings of Chinese pictures which have been presented to us.

Starting from the picture, Benediction, we have shown a total of ten feature films. This, first of all, has permitted proper enlargement of contacts between Chinese films and the working people.

In the near future we will be showing the 11th and 12th films that China has presented to us -- The Revolutionary Home and Ten Thousand Purple Hues and A Thousand Reds Are All Signs of Spring. I take this opportunity to introduce the achievements and influence of the showing of the ten films headed by Benediction.

We are not very familiar with conditions among the Chinese motion picture circles. According to what we have heard, they have been concentrating their attention in the last two years in raising the quality of their products. But even under the present conditions they are able to manufacture over 30 feature films and larger quantities of documentary films each year. Accompanying the great leap forward, they have also been able to improve the picture contents noticeably.

In the past year Japan made a total of 543 feature films. Among imported films that were distributed in Japan, there were 123 American ones and 93 European ones (including three USSR films and three from other socialist countries). On the other hand, the Chinese motion picture industry, while developing by leaps and bounds, was unable to enter even one film into the Japanese market within the past ten years.

The capitalistic press has been silent and unconcerned towards this state of affairs. Our enthusiastic moving picture fans, as well as progressive intellectual elements, of course, feel that this cannot be allowed to continue.

The incessant development of a movement to show Chinese films in the past year and a half is a manifestation of this desire which has become a force in carrying out its effectiveness.

Responsible for the showing of these films have been units such as the Sino-Japanese Amity Association and the business department of the Japanese Communist Party's official news organ.

Recently an unofficial survey was taken. The results were as follows::

<u>Name of Organization</u>	<u>Name of Film</u>	<u>Number of Showings</u>	<u>Attendance Records</u>
Sino-Japanese Amity Association	Benediction	(over 100) 37	
Aug 60 - 15 May 61	Lin Ts'e-hsu	(over 100) 70	Estimated at 330,000
(Figures in parentheses represent estimated showings prior to August 1960)	Five Golden Flowers	107	and
	Composer Nieh-Ehr	52	estimated at 45,000 for the whole year.
	Tempest	50	
	Other Medium and short films	160	
Japanese Communist Party (May 1960-April 1961)	Song of the Youths	249	260,000
	10,000 Waters and 1,000 Mountains	80	90,000
	Red Seeds (16mm.)	100	50,000
	Steel Windows and Violent Flames	47	30,000
Democratic Youth League (Estimated)	Woman Basketball Player No. 5	25	20,000

According to the estimates in the above table, in the past year there were over 1,000,000 people who saw these new Chinese feature films. A great portion of these films were shown through the single copies presented by friendly Chinese organizations, and shown alternately in various places. We were able to allocate only a small amount of money for propaganda purposes to advertise their showings. Meeting hall conditions and equipment were bad when we mobilized people to view them.

Aside from not being able to get assistance from the capitalistic press to help with propaganda, we were faced with evil and poisonous deterrent factors of governmental taxation and other measures. Any achievements that we have attained were gained through these unfavorable

conditions.

If we compared the results with those enjoyed by American films our achievements are even more spectacular. For American films are usually over ten copies there. The amount of propaganda expenses usually allocated for these films is never below ten million yen per film. However, each copy of a film can never attract more than 70,000 to 80,000 spectators a year.

We can imagine the influence of these Chinese films without talking about them. The Self-Initiative Film Showing Movement, various branches of the Sino-Japanese Amity Association, and the Democratic Youth League, who have stood fast in their desire to promote this democratic motion picture movement and organized the viewing of these films which cannot be officially imported, have sent out questionnaires to the spectators. Many spectators were quite willing to pay the return postage on these and hurriedly returned them.

Almost without exception they said that they were touched by these Chinese films. They hoped that there will be incessant showings, especially of new films. The fact that particularly needs our attention is the feeling of those who have seen a Chinese film for the first time. They have all asked themselves why we have not realized the high level of production standards of these films and why we are so backward in our recognition of true conditions in China. They also admit that these films have definitely stirred up our will to struggle.

Among these films, no matter whether it's the number of showings or the total number of spectators, the best received was the Song of the Youths. Therefore, its influence was also the greatest. The reaction of many spectators, although the showing took over three hours, was that they did not realize that so much time had passed. This is because they were absorbed by the heroine, Lin Tao-ching's, dissatisfaction with her husband's life of minor capitalistic "peace," and at that kind of married life. She wants to reform herself through revolutionary struggles. She finally joined this kind of communistic movement and was moved by it.

The spectators did not feel strange with this kind of heroine material. They felt very close to her, and a sort of sympathetic vibration passed through them.

We can see the following situation everywhere. After seeing this picture many of the youthful workers' decisions to join the Japanese Communist Party were enhanced. This fact by itself explains that a great majority of the viewers have the same feelings. At the same time it proves that this is an ideological and artistic picture.

Pictures like the Five Golden Flowers and Woman Basketball Player No. 5 are bright and active. They are comedy films that express the new morality in Chinese people's livelihood. This has caught the interest of unlimited youthful spectators. They are very happy to be able to see the healthy spirit and features of the Chinese people under the rising tide of socialistic construction. This helps to assure their hopes for the future.

Of course, we also received some straightforward constructive

criticism. More criticism was aimed at the understanding in these films. This is especially so among young workers. They lack adequate preparatory knowledge of Chinese revolutionary history. It was also hard for them to read the Japanese sub-titles on the films. It was naturally very hard for them to understand the story of the picture. This has been a very important lesson and experience for us in future showing activities.

There is one thing in the questionnaires received that merits our attention. That is, the number of people who have seen two or three of these pictures is getting larger and larger. In certain cities there is also the phenomena of special enthusiasm of the viewers in looking at these Chinese films. These people have become active elements of the show movement.

When the Nagoya branch of the Sino-Japanese Amity Association was showing Five Golden Flowers, there were 5,500 viewers. Twenty-five per cent of the questionnaires passed out to these people were returned. Among these, 77% had already seen Chinese pictures previously.

There was one active element at these showings: all by himself he had sold 251 tickets. These lively and active elements are going to be the foundation of future movements to show Chinese films. Through their efforts we will be able to increase the number of spectators from 1,000,000 man-showings to an actual 1,000,000 different persons who will see them. Or perhaps even increase this to two, three, or five million.

III. ECONOMIC

THE EFFECTS AND MEANING OF SMALL MERCHANDISE PRODUCTION DEVELOPMENT

[Following is the translation of an article by Ch'ang Chia-chun (常家俊) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 29 May 1961, page 4.]

Small merchandise production is something that our nation's farm and industrial production and the people's livelihood cannot do without. It includes small daily commodities, small daily-use hardware, bamboo and wood furniture, cultural and educational tools, handicrafts, and artistic products, etc.

Small merchandise production has the following characteristics.

(1) Production value is relatively small. The great majority of these products have small volume and use little material. Generally, they utilize agricultural by-products for processing, or they use the odds and ends of large industrial production waste materials. Usually there is a local source of raw materials, local production, and local supply and distribution. Since prices are low, production value is relatively small.

(2) The number and kinds of products are complicated. Because of different production and livelihood requirements of different individuals, there is an extraordinarily large number of items of all shapes, colors, and forms. Everything on earth is represented from needles, thread, buttons, pots, bowls, dippers, spoons, children's toys, and transportation equipment to small-sized tableware, handicraft tools, and small farm tools, etc. If we include different colors, patterns, specifications, etc., there must be several thousand items.

(3) The seasonal nature is very strong. Small merchandise production and distribution manifest themselves especially in the aspects of service to farm production and supplying people's livelihood requirements. These are both seasonal in nature. For instance, in the spring we supply hoes, shovels, fertilizer buckets, and baskets promptly in order to satisfy the needs for spring tilling, planting, and fertilizer stockpiling. In the fall, we must promptly supply scythes, brooms, and baskets, etc., in order to support the three harvests aggressively.

In the winter, people require kitchen tools and warmth-producing equipment. In the summer, they have to buy wooden slippers, bathtubs, dishes, nets, mosquito repellents, and other health products.

(4) Production techniques are relatively simple. Except for certain handicrafts, the production of this small merchandise is different from the manufacture of "tall, large, fine, or pointed" products. The pro-

duction equipment for this is also relatively simple, and the techniques are easy to master. Therefore, except for certain products that require complicated techniques, most of them are suitable for town and country commune industries, and can utilize female labor and auxiliary labor in production.

Members of rural village communes can also utilize collective labor's surplus time and holidays to proceed with household sidelines in order to increase small merchandise production volume and satisfy the needs of society.

Although small merchandise production values are small, the large volume enables it to occupy a large and important position in production and circulation of the people's economy. According to estimates, small merchandise occupies 30% to 40% of total merchandise circulating in society. This ratio more than explains its position in the entire people's economy, and its close relation with people's production and livelihood.

In the last few years, under the guidance of centralized routing of socialistic reconstruction by the Party, and under the leadership of the entire "walking on two legs" policy, our nation's small merchandise production has grown enormously both in quantity and quality.

For instance, the municipal commune industries of Tientsin are producing over 1,300 types of these products. This is more than three times the production of 1958, and also over 10% more than 1960. In 1960, the commune industries of the city of Mukden more than doubled their total production volume of 1959.

Although production of these goods has developed immensely, it still cannot catch up with the requirements of the entire nation's economy. It cannot match the new requirements that people's production and livelihood have raised. This is especially so because of the unprecedented and serious natural disasters of 1959 and 1960 which have caused difficulties in raw materials for certain small merchandise production. This has made the contradiction between production and requirements even more evident.

Therefore, in order to accommodate the needs of our nation's socialistic construction and people's livelihood, it is necessary to strengthen original results with continued development of small merchandise production. We must make practical and all-encompassing plans and arrangements for small merchandise manufacture. We have to think of a thousand tricks to manage consolidated usage, develop substitute products, and open up new sources of raw materials in overcoming difficulties due to their insufficiency.

At the same time, based upon economic conditions of our State, we must strengthen the ranks of small merchandise production, combine the capacities of large, medium, and small industries, and emphasize the latter two. We should combine the capabilities of nationalized industries, city and village communes, industries and family handicrafts, and allow these latter two to assume greater responsibilities.

The most important task in developing small merchandise manufacture is to serve industrial and agricultural production. At the present time, when the entire Party and people are promoting popular movements for en-

larged agricultural industry and foodstuff production, the growth of small merchandise production is very effective in promoting farm production and struggling for good harvests.

This is because, basically, our agriculture in its present stage depends largely upon manual labor. The ratio of machine-tilled land is still too small. The supply of farm tools, such as scythes, picks, baskets, dust bins, etc., still depends upon manual labor for their production.

This year, because the Party's agricultural policy has permeated deeply into the hearts of the people, it has stirred the aggressive nature of agricultural production. Therefore, the communes have adopted the "four stabilization" policy towards production brigades. Due to the increase of labor power on the first line of farm production, there has been a great increase in the requirements for small farm tools.

Accompanying gradual technological improvements in farming, there is the necessity for improving farm tools and the semi-mechanization of these tools. Therefore, the village communes should produce this merchandise aggressively and amply fulfill the requirements in this respect.

Commune industries have the properties of being multi-faceted, and they have a wide range of direct contact with the masses. They are able to associate themselves with actual conditions in order to meet local requirements. They are able to accompany experimental manufacture with active production, and base improvement of these tools upon conditions actually in use. Therefore, it will be easy for the rural masses to welcome and accept this merchandise.

Next, because small merchandise is so closely associated with the daily life and economy of the masses, the development of its production will be very effective in making it easier to meet the requirements of the people's livelihood.

Everybody needs to eat, wear clothes, etc. Food cannot get away from pots, dippers, bowls, and chopsticks. Clothing cannot be too far away from needles, thread, and buttons. As for locks, umbrellas, shoe nails, shoe buttons, brushes, etc., these are all small merchandise and are all daily necessities of the people.

Because of differences in habits of living, likes, and dislikes, it is necessary to prepare goods of different types and specifications in order to meet differences in people's needs.

Because of the development in socialistic constructional enterprises and the heightening of the people's materialistic and cultural standards of living, people need not only the run-of-the-mill products, but also require certain high-class and artistic products. An increase in the production of these items is also required.

Due to increases in volume and types of small merchandise, and due to participation of family women in productive labor, new requirements made by the repair trades have appeared. Through repair, it is possible to enable old and waste merchandise regain its usefulness, or increase its useful life. Therefore, we might say, the repair departments are also a part of small merchandise production.

At the present time, in satisfying the needs of the people's liveli-

hood, about 50% to 70% of small merchandise production tasks and a majority of the repair work are being borne by the city communes.

For instance, in Tientsin's city commune industries, 49.3% of its work involves service to people's livelihood. In Mukden, it occupies 54.3%; in Harbin, 55.1%; and in Hangchow, 64.4%.

In order to intensify and speed up development of this production, increase the source of market supplies, and satisfy people's many-sided demands, the city commune industries must further clarify their own important task of serving the people and the market. They must look for ways and means to increase the number of products and to better their quality.

Especially regarding famous brand name products, like the umbrellas of Wenchow, the horn combs of Foochow, the scissors of Hangchow, the fine-toothed combs of Changchow, etc., it is necessary to constantly seek improvement and refinement in order to meet people's higher and higher demands. At the same time, we should constantly improve equipment and techniques, and systematically train people to take over when necessary so that small merchandise production may be further developed and consolidated without interruption.

Next, development of this production is definitely effective in increasing exports and obtaining foreign exchange. There are many special handicrafts in China that are fine and beautiful and full of superior racial traditions in art. These can never be fully replaced by large industries.

For instance, cloisonne, lacquerware, chinaware, ceramic-ware, carvings, lace work, embroideries, and fireworks, etc. all have a good name on the international market, and are one item of our valuable racial bequest. We should value this, protect it, and propagate it. We should develop the widespread sale in the international market of this small merchandise so that we might get even more foreign exchange and materials. From this we can aggressively support the development of our nation's socialistic reconstruction.

The development of small merchandise production has not only important economic meaning, but also has very important political meaning. In actuality it relates itself to the political problems of the Party and the masses, city with the country, and industries with agriculture. Every effort and activity of our Party is basically for the benefit of the masses. Concern for the livelihood of the masses is our Party's superior tradition.

As early as 1934 our Comrade Mao Tse-tung, in the article "Concern for Mass Livelihood; Attention to Working Methods," said, "All practical livelihood problems of the masses are things that we should pay attention to" and "We are the leaders and organizers of revolutionary warriors, and also the leaders and organizers of the livelihood of the masses."

The relationship between small merchandise and people's livelihood is very close. We can imagine that if people could not buy small merchandise such as pots, bowls, needles, and thread, etc., it would bring a lot of inconvenience to the daily livelihood of the people. To a certain degree, it would even influence the people's work and training. Therefore, the

powerful development of small merchandise production and the increase in its supply manifests the incessant concern of the Party and the government for the livelihood of the masses. Its effect on the further improvement and enhancement of Party-mass relationships is very important.

The development of small merchandise production can also incessantly strengthen the cooperation between the city and the country and allow our country's labor-industrial classes to achieve a further step in the consolidation and development of their alliance.

Since two types of socialistic public ownership still exist with regard to production materials, the State is still not able to control and distribute products of the village communes as they do with products of nationalized enterprises. Between industries and agriculture, and between cities and villages, we must still use the principles of interchange in kind. We must still use the exchange of merchandise in order to establish economic relationships.

We must continue the enlargement of planned purchases and sales through nationalized commerce. We should also go through the form of village fair trading to develop small merchandise interchange in order to strengthen this relationship and satisfy the needs of country and village people's livelihood. In this way we will be able to hasten the strengthening and development of our nation's industrial-agricultural alliance aggressively.

Since the development of small merchandise production has such an important economic and political meaning, we must stress it strongly and give it its proper position. The concept that small merchandise production value is too small, the profit low, it is too miscellaneous, and bothersome, it is unimportant, the technique is too simple, and it has no future, is erroneous.

When we measure the importance or the future of an article of merchandise, we must not use its commercial value or the fineness of the product as a standard. But we must consider whether it is beneficial to socialistic reconstruction and the people's requirements. The facts prove that no matter whether it is now or in the future, small merchandise production will always be an element that our nation cannot do without in the people's economy. Participation in small merchandise production and supply work is the same as any other work in socialistic society. They are all glorious labor for service to the masses. We should follow the leadership of the Party and insist on its political guidance to follow through the policy of "walking on two legs." This will allow our nation's small merchandise production to achieve daily advancement and development. In turn, this will speed up socialistic reconstruction enterprises and unceasingly raise the materialistic and cultural standards of living of the vast masses.

FARMERS' CLASS DISINTEGRATION DURING THE POST-LAND REFORM ERA

[Following is the translation of an article by Tsou Mou
(佐牧) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 29 May 1961,
page 4.]

During the historical period after our land reform movement, the phenomenon of going to two extremes by our agricultural economy manifested itself. In the midst of the rising farm village economy, a portion of the rich farmers went along the road to exploitation. At the same time, a portion of the poor farmers and lower middle class farmers did not see their economy rise; in fact, the economy dropped. These farmers started to sell or rent their lands all over again. Some even went so far as to become hired workers.

This class disintegration after the land reform movement had a great deal of deep influence on the transitional stage of production revolution and class struggle. The analysis of available materials concerning this disintegration can help us understand more clearly the theory, routing, and policy of the Party and Chairman Mao regarding speeding up of agricultural collectivization. At the same time, it will help us to understand the systematic policy of the Party, at this stage, concerning village people's communes.

The class disintegration of the farm villages manifested itself through land transactions, land renting, labor hiring, and such economic relationships as usury practices, etc. Only through the dissection of these economic relationships can we expose the range and depth of the development of exploitation. (1) Land Transactions. According to the North Kiangsu Farm Village Model Investigation Material Handbook (hereafter called Material Handbook), over 300 mou of land in the 14 model villages (including San-huang Village) of Shu-yang in North Kiangsu were sold. This represented 3% of the total land in that area. The ratio in other places was approximately the same. There was a tendency towards increased land sales prior to the total collectivization of land in 1955. (For instance, in 1951 at Pao-ying Hsien of North Kiangsu there were 500 families who sold land amounting to 1,735 mou. In 1952 this increased to 1,705 families and 6,853.5 mou of land. In the first ten months of 1953 these figures had increased to 2,264 families and 7,472 mou of land. These latter figures when compared to 1951 had increased 4.5 times.)

In the first and second years after the land reform movement had determined land ownership, the poor farmers very noticeably became the class that has lost their land. In this period of time, the total amount

of land purchased by poor farmers was 58 mou, which was a little over 20% of the total land purchased. However, the percentage of land they sold was over 65% of the total sold.

The rich middle class farmers were the class that purchased the most land. These farmers plus city tradesmen bought a total of 225 mou, which constituted nearly 80% of total purchases. This showed that the tendency was towards concentration of land in the hands of rich middle class farmers (in the suburban areas this also included city tradesmen). This explained that aside from distance adjustments, all land transactions manifested the division into the rich and the poor.

The 14 villages, including San-huang, consisted of old, new, rice paddy, miscellaneous grain, and economic products areas which was quite representative of agricultural communities. The available materials explained that the more land transactions there were, the more land and production materials the rich middle class farmers would hold.

Changes in ownership of land created a lessor-lessee relationship, and labor employer-employee relationships have a tendency of becoming more favorable to the rich middle class farmers. In order to do away with this class disintegration, we must basically collectivize production material through land collectivization movements.

(2) Labor Employer-Employee Relationship. Although not very many farmers were forced to become hired hands, due to speedy development of the collectivization movement, the percentage is still quite noticeable. According to model investigations in Kwangtung and Manchuria in 1953, newly-employed farmers constituted 0.3% to 0.5% of the total. In actual fact this percentage might have been even greater.

In Honan and Hunan the annual wage was generally between 600 to 1,000 chin of grain. (See Agricultural Village Economic Investigation Reports, page 24, published by the People's Publishing Society of Hupeh). It is quite evident that such a wage could barely keep the laborer himself warm and fed.

The exploitation relationship between the employer and employee is greatest for short-term and daily workers. Except for exchange-of-labor practices, the degree of exploitation was much higher for short-term employment than for permanent employees because the work for short-term workers is harder and the efficiency higher.

In 1953 after the Party had announced its totalized routing of the transitional period, permanent hiring was reduced while day labor and temporary labor hiring were increased, particularly with regard to the increase in workers hired by rich middle class farmers. (For instance, according to investigations in Kwangtung, permanent employees of rich middle class farmers were 11% less in 1953 and 1952. At the same time, hiring of daily workers increased almost 15%.)

We must realize that the employer-employee relationship manifests two different kinds of economic relationships. One is that of exploitation, the other of mutual help. The ratio of those who hire for exploitation purposes to the total number of employers was 15% in Hupeh, Hunan, and Kiangsi; and 22% in Kwangtung. (See Agricultural Village Economic

Investigation Reports, page 24.) Among these exploiting employers, more than one-half were rich middle class farmers. (For instance, investigations in 35 model hsiang of the Chung-nan District showed that among employers who were hiring for exploitation purposes, there were 53% who were middle class farmers. Of course, we refer to the rich middle class farmers.) These rich middle class farmers were followed by rich farmers, land owners, and speculative traders in the villages.

The other type of employer-employee relationship manifests itself in mutual help and interchange of labor between farmers. We have seen that even poor farmers sometimes have to hire day workers.

From certain model materials we see that this practice is quite general. When poor farmers hire day workers, unlike the rich middle class farmers, it is basically in the nature of labor exchange. They only hire workers because they have insufficient farm tools and animals, and need other people's help in production. This explains the fragile nature of the poor farmers' economy.

Therefore, this frequent labor interchange has its proper meaning in the class disintegration of farm villages. Only because poor farmers lack work, cattle, and large farm tools, do they offer their labor to the rich middle class farmers who have an excess of these things. The poor farmers are more urgently in need of "labor interchange" than the middle class farmers. Of course, these middle class farmers would utilize their animals and tools promptly on their own land first, and then lend them to the poor farmers for mutual help. In this way, although there was "fair" interchange, the poor farmers had already lost out.

The Investigation Division of the Heilungkiang Party Committee pointed out the following at the end of 1952 in an investigation report concerning the five model villages of the province, "The mutual benefit policy of mutual cooperation practices has not been carried out sufficiently. Within the unit, there has been general discrimination and expulsion of poor families. Rotation of production, and labor and animal interchange have not been reasonable. The richer families have always taken advantage of the poor. The poor were not able to take care of their own farm operations at the proper time; work has been slipshod, yield has been low, and sometimes they even had to abandon their land."

This applied only to conditions in the mutual help divisions. As for places where they did not have mutual help divisions, disguised exploitation of labor interchange was a very common occurrence. So we can see that in interchange of labor based on private ownership of production materials, the more often it takes place the more advantageous it would be for the middle class farmers.

In actuality this kind of employer-employee relationship is another element of influencing farm village class disintegration. In applying for work, the poor farmers and the lower middle class farmers indicate that although they have not yet rented out or sold their land, they are no longer able to depend on their own capabilities to operate these lands. Regarding these people, we must organize them and lead them on the road to socialistic collectivization.

Some comrades only admit to the phenomenon of rich farmers and rich middle class farmers exploiting their employees. They have overlooked the fact that hidden exploitation also exists in the labor interchange relationship between the poor farmers and the lower middle farmers with rich middle class farmers, based on the foundation of private ownership of production materials. This is not right.

(3) Land Lessor-Lessee Relationship. In the first and second years after the land reform movement there were certain developments in the land rental relationship. From the available information concerning the above-mentioned 14 villages, land rented out constituted about 3% of the total acreage. Rentals were paid based on percentage or guaranteed produce systems. But the nature of this kind of lessor-lessee relationship when compared to pre-land reform eras has changed fundamentally.

In order to explain the nature of post-land reform rental relationships accurately, we must first differentiate between two kinds of lessors. One kind consists of land owners, rich farmers, farm village small traders, and rich middle class farmers. That is, those who lease out land with the purpose of exploiting other people's labors. The other kind are the poor farmers of the farm village and the lower middle class farmers who, because of serious deficiencies in labor power, work cattle, and agricultural tools, are unable to till the land and must lease out their lands. These conditions are unlike those existing before the land reform movement.

Land Rental Conditions in the 14 Villages (Including San-huang Village) of Shu-yang Hsien, North Kiangsu, Post-Land Reform Era (Unit-mou)

<u>Composition</u>	<u>Land Possessed</u>	<u>Land Rented Out</u>	<u>Land Rented</u>	<u>Net Gain or Loss</u>
Poor Farmers	10104.10	292.83	202.60	- 90.23
Middle Class Farmers	17510.15	402.23	720.54	+318.31
Rich Farmers	1012.34	45.00	0	- 45.00
Land Owners	221.63	63.68	0	- 63.68
Small Land Lessors	59.65	41.88	0	- 17.77
Others	274.97	35.06	103.90	+ 73.84
Total	29182.84	880.68	1032.04	

From the above we can see that the amount of land rented out by the poor farmers, the middle class farmers (principally lower middle class farmers), and the small land lessors greatly exceeds the amount of land rented out by the land owners and the rich farmers. The first totalled 736.94 mou, composing 84% of the total land rented out. For the second

group, the total was 108.68 mou, or slightly more than 12%.

This explains that the poor farmers and the lower middle class farmers are unable to cultivate their "per capita" land and cannot help renting it out. Those people, in renting out their land and selling their land during the post-land reform era, have indicated that agricultural labor and their basic production material -- land -- have become separated.

Aside from the above-mentioned material, investigative materials from farm villages of other provinces also indicate that poor farmers and lower middle class farmers are the principal lessors of land. The main reason for having to rent out their land is a lack of labor and production materials.

For instance, in the ten hsiang (including Chin-shan Hsiang of Ping-lo Hsien and Shih-shih Hsiang of Tu-chung Hsien) of Kwangsi Province, the lessors of land in 1954 consisted mainly of middle class farmers and to a lesser extent poor farmers. When we dig into the reason for this, we find that there was too much land and too little labor power. Those who had difficulty in tilling the land themselves consisted of 60% of the lessors. Distance adjustments accounted for only 13%. (See Selected Investigation Materials from the Agricultural Villages of the Eight Provinces, pages 22-23.)

This information tells us that among the 60% that could not help renting out their land, "Most of them were middle class farmers." However, obviously those who had too much land, too little labor power, and could not till the land themselves must be from the lower middle class. Just as we have seen in our analysis of results in Kiangsu, the largest number of lessors were from the poor farmer and lower middle class farmers. This set of figures points out even more clearly that those who leased out their land for rental purposes consisted of only 13%.

From the point of view of conditions of the lessee, materials from the 14 villages of North Kiangsu indicate (see table above) that aside from "others" which shows figures for people in villages from the cities, only the middle class farmers are absolute lessees because they are the ones that have the largest gain figure in the "net gain or loss" column. Their rented land constituted almost 70% of the "land rented" total.

The main reason for renting land is relative availability of labor power and sufficiency in production materials. Prior to land reform, the prosperous middle class farmers were the old upper middle class farmers who tilled large fields. So we can see that there has been an enormous change before and after land reform.

Before the land reform movement, the majority of the lessors were land owners and rich farmers who rented out land for the purpose of rental income. The lessees were the great majority of the farm village masses who had little or no land. After the land reform, lessors became mainly poor farmers and lower middle class farmers. They had been forced to rent out their land or reduce the size of their production, or forced to change their profession, and forced to be exploited in some other way. Now, the lessees are rich farmers, especially those who exploit others.

Under these capitalistic lessor-lessee relationships, the rich middle class farmers are utilizing day labor on a large scale in order to operate their own as well as rented land. Of course, there are individuals who also employ permanent workers.

For these lessees, a portion of the fruits of their own and their employees' labor goes for rental to small land lessors. Another part of their own and their employees' labor goes towards re-production, enlargement, and livelihood improvements. This allows a gradual rising of the middle class farmers' economic position.

Aside from this, a small number of people who are newly rich farmers are depending upon their relatively ample production materials to take care of their relatives. They go so far as to disguise their activities to hide this help within the mutual assistance division by employing these relatives and operating land which they have rented. In this way, they proceed with exploitation through employment of "permanent workers." Although these rich farmers are lessees they are actually getting income through exploitation.

As far as these newly rich farmers and those rich middle class farmers with many employees are concerned, the land rental is merely the whole or a part of the employees' surplus labor power. This kind of rental is without a doubt capitalistic in nature.

Regarding a portion of the rich middle class farmers who depend upon their own labor power to cultivate rented land, although there is not much exploitation involved and its form has not been solidified, there is a tendency towards the exploitation nature. It already is a relationship which is in the transitional stage going towards total capitalistic nature.

Since lessor-lessee relationship after the land reform is capitalistic in nature or has a tendency of changing into such a nature, therefore the development of the relationship hints at the development of capitalistic self-resurgence. It also hints at the increase in the actual strength of capitalistic classes in the farm village economy.

(4) Usury problems. The State's farm loans made to the villages after the Liberation, as well as the capital collected for trust cooperatives, in growing larger and larger were able to satisfy farm villages' requirements for production development and livelihood management in a great measure.

But the State's loans and trust cooperation organization capital prior to total collectivization (that is, in the recuperative period of the people's economy as well as the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan period) gradually occupied the battlefield of the village trust funds. These funds constituted but a little over 10% of the total loan funds during the initial period after the Liberation. In 1955 this rose to around 60%.

Between 1952 and 1954 in many areas private loan relationships and usury practices expanded into extraordinary proportions. It was even going further. According to statistics, in 1953 from 16 hsiang in the four provinces of Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi, and Kwangtung, money lenders constituted

around 10% of the total number of families, which was double the figure for 1952. The total amount of money loaned also doubled over that of 1952.

A great portion of this money lending was mutual lending, that is, those who had it lent money to those who did not have any at little or no interest. However, at least 10% to 60% of these loans which were made by private parties involved usury rates of from 5% to 10% per month.

Of course, this loan relationship was caused by many factors. For instance, aside from political ideological work and financial activity differences, there were differences in general livelihood conditions and economic conditions of various areas. We can see wherever political ideological work was done relatively well, financial work, especially mass trust cooperative enterprises, developed very rapidly and usury practices dropped noticeably. Where this was not true, loans were more frequent and usury practices were more prevalent.

Loan relationships existed mainly between farmers, but the influence on various classes of farmers was entirely different in each case. According to statistics from the 16 hsiang mentioned above, the average per-family grain weight used by the middle class farmers for lending to other people was 570-odd chin. The number of middle class farmer families (particularly the upper middle class ones) and amounts of grain involved in these loans were around 70% of the total; the figure for poor farmers was only 30%. However, the number of poor farmer borrowers constituted over one-half of the total number of borrowers, and the amount of grain they borrowed was over 60% of the total. (See Farm Village Investigation Report, page 22.)

Due to the weak nature of the small farmers' economy, and due to the fact that poor farmers are the principal borrowers, the loan relationship of our farm villages prior to their collectivization was principally one in which loans were made to meet urgent livelihood requirements, while only a small portion of these loans were made for production purposes. (According to investigations in the four hsiang of Kiangsi, those who borrowed money for lack of foodstuffs, weddings, or funerals, or for disease and medical purposes, constituted 85% of the total. In Hunan this was 81%; in Hupeh, 61%; and in Kwangtung, 75%. See Agricultural Village Economic Investigation Reports, pages 22-23.)

We must point out that since poor farmers were the principal borrowers, and since loans were used mainly to take care of livelihood requirements, their characteristics made usury terms especially severe. Its dangerous nature towards socialistic reconstruction enterprises was particularly great. This made the bi-polarization of the farm class even more energetic.

From the point of view of the borrowers who were mostly poor or lower middle class farmers, due to generally bad financial circumstances, simple re-production and bare sustenance of their families' livelihood were difficult to maintain. In years of natural disasters, it was even worse. In families with large numbers of people, small labor power, and severe economic conditions, even in mostly normal years they are not able

to match their income with their expenses. Their acceptance of usury loans explains the fact that there is absolute insolvency in their production and livelihood. Under these circumstances, if they were to suffer total exploitation by 5% per month interest rates, naturally they would have a difficult time maintaining themselves.

Not only have usury practices taken away all excess labor surpluses from the small farmers, but they have also taken away a portion of necessary labor. This causes the borrowers to lose even what is necessary to maintain themselves at bare subsistence levels. It compels them to sell their labor services. Usury practices have undoubtedly hastened bankruptcy of poor and lower middle class farmers.

Many rich farmers have mainly utilized excess grain on their hands to become usurers. Their profits have increased so the capital they use for reproduction and exploitation of others has also increased.

Although the development of usury practices can also be disadvantageous to rich farmers' expanded operations, our investigations have not shown much constraining influence of these practices upon the reproductive power of the rich farmers. This is because surpluses in their hands are relatively large and they do not have any urgent problems regarding livelihood. Their loan positions are relatively stronger. Low interest and interest-free loan relationships exist mainly between these rich farmers. At the same time, these farmers have also received certain amounts of production loans.

So we can see, although usury practices have caused the critical destruction of the poor and lower middle class farmers' production conditions, they have allowed a portion of rich farmers to climb much higher. Therefore, we say that village usury practices are like catalysts in chemistry in its action of the disintegration of farmer classes.

In the above we have discussed the four main aspects of land transactions, lessor-lessee, employer-employee, and loan relationships. We have analyzed the degree and range of the farm village class disintegration in the post-land reform era.

Aside from this, the development of speculative commerce, individual village handicraft operations, and by-product production, have to a definite degree also hastened the bi-polarization of the farmer classes.

Everybody knows that small production activities can cause the spontaneous birth of capitalism each hour of every day. The only road leading to destruction of class disintegration lies in farm collectivization. Prior to total farm collectivization, the bi-polarization of small farmer economy in the post-land reform era cannot be avoided.

However, from the analysis that we have just made, we can see that our farm economy is characteristically strong in the middle (about 20% to 30% of the rich or relatively rich farmers have a strong economic position) and weak at the two ends (the extremely rich and the poor farmers are both weak economically). This has caused a rapid rather than a slow disintegration and bi-polarization from within the farmer classes.

At one time after the land reform we were able to accommodate development in productive power. But capitalistic production relationships

and spontaneous capitalistic tendencies arising from the foundations of small farmer economy have gradually deterred the raising of production power.

For instance, because land rented through the land-rental relationship was of undetermined duration, nobody wanted to be meticulous in working on it. There were even operations on these lands that were destructive in nature. Then take the labor-employment relationship; the employees have been separated from their own production material, that is, their land. The aggressive nature of their work, of course, dropped to a very low level.

The further that class disintegration proceeds, the further capitalistic production relationships will develop. As a result, the confinement nature of the production relationship on productive power becomes larger and larger. At the same time, the class disintegration within this group of farmers, if allowed to develop of its own will, would interfere politically with the solidification of the alliance between workers and farmers. This, in turn, would endanger the foundation upon which socialism ruled.

Chairman Mao, in his book, Problems of Agricultural Collectivization, points out, "Everybody has already seen that in the last few years spontaneous development of capitalism in the farm villages is growing day by day. New rich farmers have appeared all over. Many rich middle class farmers are trying their best to make themselves rich farmers. Many poor farmers, because they lack production materials, still occupy a position of poverty and difficulties. Some of them owe debts; others are selling their land or renting it out. If we allow these conditions to develop, the bi-polarization phenomenon in the farm villages will become more and more severe daily."

The facts were exactly as he had predicted. Starting from the tendency of possible serious developments of spontaneous capitalistic powers in our nation's farm villages, Chairman Mao had made a high estimate of the aggressive nature of socialism among the vast masses of poor and lower middle class farmers. He has raised the principle that it is necessary and also possible for our nation's socialistic agricultural reformation to effect a great leap forward.

Through analysis we have been able to tell that quite a number of poor and lower middle class farmers have suffered greatly in the process of class disintegration. It is also true that rich middle class farmers have tasted the "sweetness" of individual private operations. According to model study materials, about one-third of these rich middle class farmers were engaged in exploitation activities. (See Chinese Economic Essay Selections, 1953 issue, page 166.)

Besides, in the last few years, because of the economic position of these farmers, they have been quite passive towards socialistic reformation activities. Certain rich middle class farmers still long for the "freedom" of the class disintegration era. From now on this type of ideology will manifest itself again and again in new shapes and forms, in new directions among the rich middle class farmers. We can see that we

should definitely not mix up economic reformation of the villages with the ideological reformation of the farmers.

The rich middle class farmers, through the Party's ideological education, realize that the people's communes have proved the superior nature of today's collectivization and want to travel on the road to socialism. However, we must still pay attention to the kind of capitalistic thoughts and tendencies mentioned above.

The deciding factor will be the political ideological activities of the Party. In order to develop and strengthen the people's communes incessantly to meet the rich middle class farmers' ideology, which had arisen through class disintegration, relentless socialistic ideological education work among the farmers is still a regular but serious task.

THIS IS A BUSY SEASON FOR OUR AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

[Following is a translation of a feature article in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 31 May 1961, page 3.]

At present, all of our farms have entered the busy season of agricultural production. After reforms in both individual habits and communes as well as the carrying out of Party policies, members of our communes have developed a very high degree of aggressiveness in their work for a better harvest this year.

Better Planting and Management of Fields This Autumn and Better Preparation for This Summer's Planting and Harvesting

The spring harvesting of wheat throughout the country has been very successful. In wheat-planting areas from Manchuria and Inner Mongolia, to the northwestern highlands, communes and production teams have conquered all kinds of adverse natural conditions, have expanded planting areas, and have improved the quality of planting. In Liaoning Province, the planted area in the spring was 40% higher than that of last year, and 80% of its wheat fields were cultivated by double plows. Up to the present, the growth of spring wheat is very good. Therefore, it is the right time to proceed with watering, fertilizing, and weeding work as well as to strengthen the administration of the wheat field.

In the north, Manchurian provinces and the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region are now concentrating their manpower, animal power, and farm tools on the sowing of autumn crops. Liaoning Province has put 11% more labor than last year into the front line of agricultural production. Communes and national farms of Heilungkiang Province have universally strengthened the labor for their spring sowing. According to the statistics of the Sungari and Hokiang areas of that province, the manpower and animal power which they put in the spring planting has exceeded 70% of their total manpower and animal power. Many communes have succeeded in speeding up their spring sowing, while at the same time not interfering with their planting of autumn crops. In some areas where the season started earlier, and the progress was faster, the sowing job has already been concluded. Everywhere in Liaoning, the spring sowing has reached the last stage and summer planting is being planned. In order to expand the area for sowing, those production teams of the communes in Kirin Province have tried to cultivate many arid lands while at the same time have worked successfully on their cultivated land. In the central part of Honan, the sowing of the

early autumn crops has been concluded and the present work involves only such administrative work as checking and supplemental sowing.

In the area around the Yellow River and the Huai River, administrative work for the later stages of wheat planting has been carried out and preparations for summer harvesting and summer sowing are being aggressively pushed. While the growth of wheat is fine, there are 20,000,000 mou of wheat under the threat of drought. Farmers in those areas have been working very hard to find a greater water supply as well as to strengthen the administration of wheat fields. Farmers in all the wheat areas of Shantung Province have been fighting very hard against drought, locusts, and other natural calamities. They fought valiantly by strengthening irrigation work and supplying the water needed for the growth of the wheat. In one of the districts which suffered from a serious drought such as the Liaoning area, more than 2,300,000 mou have been irrigated. Other districts have also done the same thing in order to get more from each mou.

Due to various natural calamities in Honan, it seems that the production of wheat and other winter foods will be reduced. Districts of that province are now working very hard and are harvesting all the spring crops and planting the summer crops. In the major wheat producing areas in Hupeh such as Hsiang-yang, farmers are now very busy harvesting and planting the summer crops. In the provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Szechwan, Kweichow, and Yunnan, farmers are very busy harvesting wheat, peas, and other summer crops. Certain winter crops in these provinces were damaged by the cold weather in this spring, but still there are many districts where winter crops were very good. In many districts of those provinces where the harvest season began a little earlier, such as southern Fukien, harvesting has already been completed. In some other districts, the harvesting and thrashing jobs have been faster and have been handled in a much finer way than last year.

In the rice districts of the south, the planting of rice has been completed. Fortunately, the weather has been very suitable for the planting of rice and very few efforts were wasted. At present, farmers of these areas are working on the administrative work for the early stages of rice planting, including checking, supplementing, and fertilizing jobs. The Hainan District of Kwangtung has completed its planting of the early rice crop of the year. The first fertilizer job at Ting-nan Hsien in southern Kiangsi was completed. In such districts where the sowing season was late, the planting work has been pushed urgently.

Many districts of the south are actively working on the planting of a second rice crop while working very hard on the harvesting of the first crop. Farmers in the provinces around the Upper Yangtze have been very busy planting rice. In Szechwan, 70% of the planting work for the second crop has been completed. Farmers in Yunnan, Kweichow, and Hupeh, have been very busy planting their crops. In order to take care of both planting and harvesting work, more than 400 production teams in the Nei-chiang wheat area have organized special groups in charge of watering, fertilizing, repairing, and planting, thus greatly improving labor effi-

ciency and quality of their work.

Successfully Manage the Economic Crops and Fight for Increased Production

In order to carry out the policy of producing more food thoroughly, all districts in the country have been working for the development of various economic goods such as cotton, oil, tobacco, hemp, tea, sugar, fruits, and herbs. These economic goods have broad sales and high commercial value as well as a close relationship with the economic reconstruction of the State and the people's livelihood. Furthermore, these economic goods are the major sources of our light industry as well as our major exports. They bear a close relationship to the necessities of the people's livelihood. Consequently, carrying out our Party policy of developing these economic goods and doing a good job on the planting of these goods are our major duties on our agricultural front.

At present, some districts are rushing to plant these goods and some districts have completed their planting. The latter are now working very hard to improve their administrative work in order to get a good harvest of these goods. Farmers of Shansi Province are taking advantage of the short break after the planting of early rice to rush the planting of cotton, peanuts, and other goods. In major cotton-producing areas in Shensi, Hopeh, Hupeh, and other provinces, cotton has been flowering very well and farmers have been trying very hard to fight weeds and harmful insects. Those peanut-producing areas in Shantung such as Yen-t'ai, Ling-hsi, Chi-nan, and other places, have completed their sowing work. Other areas have tried to plant peanuts and at the same time fight against all kinds of natural calamities. Areas in Ch'ing-hai have been working on the planting of such crops which will produce edible oils. In Kweichow Province, farmers have completed their plans for the planting of tobacco and have also worked on the preparation of the tobacco fields. In one of the major yellow tobacco-producing areas of Shantung, the Ch'ang-wei area, many production teams have arranged everything necessary for the production of yellow tobacco. Farmers in the sweet vegetable-producing areas of Kirin Province have been rushing to plant such sweet vegetables and have paid serious attention to the vulnerabilities of such vegetables to drought and harmful insects. At present, the planting plans of all those districts have been successfully completed.

The planting of yellow hemp in Chekiang Province has reached 85% of the original plan and the sowing jobs in other hemp-producing districts have also been promoted under efficient administration. The sugar cane-producing and edible oil-producing areas of Kwangsi Province are now strengthening their administration of the crops. For example, more than 90,000 mou of sugar cane in Kwei-hsien are in very good shape and more than 20,000 farmers are working on the weeding, fertilizing, and plowing of those fields, thus finishing the second planting and fertilizing in about 54,000 mou of sugar cane fields. Commune members of P'ing-nan, Yu-lin, Kwei-hsien, and other places, in addition to their work in planting peanuts, have tried to raise sesames in arid land.

Farmers in those tea-producing areas of Kweichow such as An-shun, K'ai-yang, and Hiei-t'ang, are rushing the picking of spring teas, average more than 50,000 chin a day. In the major orange-producing area of Chekiang, Chen-chiang, high quality oranges were planted in more than 20,000 mou of land. Members of communes in that area are busy working on the fertilizing and weeding jobs as well as other administrative jobs. In the well-known "home of flowers and fruit" such as Kwei-te, Min-ho, Tung-tou, Shun-hua, and Hua-lun, farmers are taking advantage of the impending ripening of pears, apples, and apricots to speed up their fight against harmful insects. Farmers in the Wu-ch'iao Commune of Kao-an Hsien in Kiangsi have utilized spare land to plant herbs and to fight for an increase of herb production.

Thoroughly Carry Out Our Policies and Buy All the Necessary Tools

During the process of planting and harvesting, some districts have suffered from natural calamities. Some districts in Shantung, Honan, Hopeh, and Shansi, have suffered from drought in the spring and some drought districts have been hit by wind and hail. There are some communes which have suffered from a shortage of manpower and animal power because of their expanded cultivated areas. These communes have been trying to conquer these difficulties.

However, at present, there are many favorable conditions for the development of agriculture. (1) Under the policy of "developing agriculture and grain" and "using grain as a pivot for the over-all development of agriculture," our cadres and leading agencies have strengthened their leadership by joining the front line of production and doing research and study on actual situations. The First Secretary of the Liaoning Party Committee visited each city and each hsien and led all cadres in joining the work of the communes and the production teams.

(2) Through different reform movements, cadres have learned to "know the nature of the soil, the mind of the commune members, and the key to all the problems of production." In many communes and production teams, meetings of members have been regularly held in order to carry out the system of democratic centralization and to improve their democratic administration.

(3) Since all the Party policies were thoroughly indoctrinated in the minds of the commune members, members have carried out the policies of "considering production teams to be the basis of all three levels of farm ownership," "distributing rewards according to labor contributions," and "establishing the system of taking full responsibility as well as giving rewards to the more productive," thus setting up a quota system for each level of the production units as well as a complete system of individual responsibility in production. Some production teams in Fukien and Kwangsi rewarded both the teams which surpassed the quotas and those members who produced more. In many production areas of economic goods, rewards were given to people of high productivity and more goods were retained by such units which had increased their production, thus showing the State's

emphasis on grain and raising the aggressiveness of the commune members in production. Consequently, there were more members who joined production, their labor efficiency has been increased, and quality of products has been improved. In Kwangsi, Cheliang, and Kiangsi Provinces, members of communes and production teams have enthusiastically participated in the movement for the surpassing of quotas.

At the same time, the results of purchasing farm tools as well as other means of production have been very good. Many farm tools were made from the 400,000 tons of steel and iron allotted to agriculture in the first four months of this year, and 320,000 pieces of farm tools have been collected from 25 provinces and cities for the use of communes. Some communes have developed their own facilities to make or repair small farm tools. The minorities tribes in Kwangsi have used their ingenuity to make 780,000 pieces of farm tools and more than 2,000,000 pieces of bamboo tools. Some communes have even devised an exchange system of mutual help.

THE ORIGIN, RESEARCH OBJECTS, AND MISSION OF CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY ECONOMICS

[Following is a translation of an article by Wang Hung-
ching in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 5 June 1961, page 47.
(王宏經)]

The Construction Industry Economics is a newly-developed science in the field of economics. There are different viewpoints and debates on its origin, research objectives, missions, and contents. The following is just my personal opinion concerning the origin, research objects, and mission. Any criticism and correction of this article will be appreciated.

I

The Construction Industry Economics is a division of economics. In discussing its origin and development, it is related to the origin of division economics. Some comrades acknowledge that division economics is a product of a socialist society, and it does not exist in capitalistic society. I do not agree with this viewpoint.

We know that the divisions of sciences increase with time accompanying the production development of the society. No matter what the system of the society, its production includes the relationship of two undivided sides. First, it is the relationship between mankind and nature, and, second, the mutual relationship among human beings in the production processes. The former belongs to the scope of research to technical science of production, and the latter belongs to the scope of research to social economics. No matter what form of society, in the production relationship among human beings, there objectively exists this or that relationship. Hence, though in the society before capitalism, the economics was not considered an independent science, people studied the economic problems of society anyway. The earlier formation of the production divisions, the earlier their economical problems were paid attention and studied.

The origin and development of science is determined by the production development. However, only with the corresponding experience accumulations of a production struggle with certain acknowledgements by the people is there the possibility and necessity of concluding and generalizing these experiences to form into new science divisions. For instance, in the transitional period between the 15th and 16th centuries, the com-

mercantile capital played a dominant role, so mercantilism was originated. Later, owing to the emergence of the rich peasant economy, the physiocratic school was originated. Gradually, the political economy (scientific and laymen's) of the capitalist class was originated.

In the 1830's, the period of the development of capitalism, owing to the harsh struggle between the capitalist and proletariat classes, Marxist political economics was originated. We can see that the origin of political economics has definite historical steps. If we consider the economic theories of mercantilism and physiocracy to be the "division economics," there was division economics before the originating and functioning of political economics.

The development of political economics is undivided to the development of division economics. Taking the production relationship of the whole national economy as objects of study, the political economy was formed at the end of the 15th century. As Karl Marx pointed out, "The science of modern economy was originated in the transitional period of the ideology investigation from propagation process to the production processes." (Das Kapital, Vol. 3, page 416.)

Following the development of capitalism, the ever-increasing division of labor in the society, and divisions of the national economy, conditions were created for the originating and development of division economics. The existence bred the consciousness and the economic foundation determined the upper structure. In capitalist society, there are the formation and existence of various industrial divisions. They produce division economics with the research objects on capitalism division economics, the various division research contents, and different missions to develop incessantly. We can see that division economics is not "the special product of socialistic society" as considered by some comrades. It was originated and had existed before socialistic society.

In class society, owing to the different standings of class and contradictions of interest, there are differences in the analysis, acknowledgement, and conclusion of the economic phenomena and processes. Super-class economics does not exist. Hence, there are capitalist division economics and proletariat division economics. The students of a capitalist class study division economics with the motive of concealing the exploiting nature of capitalism to seek wealth and make capitalists rich, using the theories and means to savagely exploit.

The motive of the Marxist-Leninists in studying the division economics is just opposite to the former. We reveal the exploiting nature of the capitalists for the internal contradictions in the development of capitalist division economics to forecast the unavoidable doom of capitalism and the correct route and plan of the class struggle by the proletariat.

After the victory of the socialist revolution, it was the important mission of the proletariat and their political party to deeply acknowledge and grasp the developmental characteristics of production development, and to make high-speed plans in proportionally developing the national economy. At the same time, the establishment of the collective ownership of the means of production under socialism creates favorable conditions

for the establishment and development of the various division economics of socialism! Hence, following the development of socialistic economic construction, taking the ideology of political economics of Marxism-Leninism as the foundation, many socialist division economics have gradually formed, including socialist industrial economics, socialist agricultural economics, and socialist transportation economics.

Generally speaking, the construction products, such as houses, factories, and buildings, are the productive and non-productive fixed properties needed by the various departments of the national economy. The high-speed progress of socialist reproduction and the carrying out of large-scale economic construction are mainly determined by the production development of the construction industry. Construction products and the production characteristics are the fixed construction sites, and the producers and means of production have to move with the different construction objects. In the general industrial department (such as machinery manufacturing industry), the production is fixed in the shop and factory. Moreover, owing to the fixation characteristics of the construction products, there are different conditions of design, construction, and usage with a characteristic individuality. Construction products have to be constructed item by item, and the clear objects of utilization do not often exist before construction, unlike other industries capable of mass production.

After the completion of construction products, through the distribution of market or State organizations, the products are transported to the users. Moreover, there is a longer period of production for the construction products. In a long time, the labor and means of production are incessantly spent; however, no usable product can be obtained during production. For instance, many years for the construction of hydraulic power stations are needed. Since there are many characteristics of the construction products and technical economics, socialistic industrial economics and the division economics follow the development of the national economy and the accumulation of socialistic construction experiences, on the foundation of Marxist-Leninist principles, to gradually form the socialistic construction economics. In the USSR, the earliest emergence of the socialistic construction economics was in the 1920's. In our country, it emerged in the most recent years.

II

As stated above, in the development processes of socialistic economic construction on the foundation of political-economic ideology, construction industry economics has gradually materialized and developed. Based on what is stated above, some comrades acknowledge that the research objects of the construction industry economics are economic rules under the socialist system to reveal the functions in the construction industry and other departments of the national economy. They acknowledge that since the construction industry is like other industrial departments like coal, electric power, and machinery manufacturing, the most principal form

of ownership of the means of production in the production relationship is the all-people ownership of socialism. Hence, it is impossible for the special economic relationship to exist. Special economic rules do not exist. This viewpoint has certain significance; however, it is not on a whole scale.

All people know that political-economics is a science to research the production relationship of the whole society. The economic rules, thus revealed, are certain to function in the construction industry and other national economic departments. However, there are the same economic rules existing and functioning in the various departments of the national economy. There are identical development rules of the production relationship in the various national economic departments. Except for the general economic rules, individual economic rules do not exist. This is difficult to let people believe because the economic rule is a characteristic internal unification of the economic phenomena. It is the same thing that stabilizes and incessantly repeats in the economic phenomena. As Lenin pointed out, the general concept of rule is the unification and connection during the procedures of mankind's recognition of the world. It is one of the steps of mutual dependability and whole-scale character. Those having the above characteristics are called rules. So, like other socialistic economic departments, the means of production of the construction industry are owned by the entire people under socialism. Hence, among the various economic departments, there exist the general economic rules with the mutual functions in the various departments.

However, owing to the different production techniques and economic characteristics, there are differences in the development of production relationships and economic activities in the various departments. The differences are contradictions. "Any form of movement includes the individual special contradiction which forms the special characteristic of this thing in distinguishing it from other things." (Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung, Volume I, page 297.)

Owing to the existence of technical characteristics of construction products, the economic activities of the construction industry are different from those of the other departments. This is the "individual" (opposite of "general") economic rule (or special economic rule) as functioning and objectively existing in the production of the construction industry. Then it becomes the special research object of construction industry economics. Comrade Mao Tse-tung instructed us, ".....to every activity form of matter, attention should be paid to the concurrent point together with other activity forms. However, most important of all is the thing as the foundation of recognizing things. We should pay attention to its particulars. If we do not recognize the universal character of contradictions, we are unable to discover the universal cause of foundation of the activities development of things. However, if we don't study the particulars of contradictions, there is no foundation to ascertain the special characteristics of this thing different to other things, and we are unable to discover the special cause of the activities development

of things. We are also unable to distinguish things and the research scope of sciences." (Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung, Volume I, page 297.)

The relationship between the economic rules (the respective research objects) as studied in construction industry economics (division economics) and political economics is the relationship of individual and general, special and universal, and individual and common character. There exists universality in special characters, and common character in individuality. The general is the generalization of many individuals. The emphasis and study of the general is important, however, because without research and recognition to the individual, the general cannot be realized. People acknowledge the objective things starting from individual and special and advance to general and universal.

After recognizing the concurrent character of things, we can find out the general rule which acts as a foundation to study those things that haven't been studied or haven't been deeply studied. Then we can more deeply recognize the special character of things. So, people first recognize the special economic rules, then the general economic rules. These general and special rules exist together. Taking Lenin's research on the development of Russian capitalism as an instance, it was engaged on the foundation of the various economic divisions of Russia. In very early times, the contents of modern political economics was not so complete, and the general economic rules as discussed in the political economics were obtained from deep research of the economic rules which existed in the various departments of the national economy of various systems of society. Otherwise, it would be difficult to conclude any of the general economic rules. This does not mean that only after extensively studying the economic rules of all departments of the national economy can we obtain the general economic rules. We have to explain that the relationship of economic rules as discussed and studied in construction industry economics and political economics are different from the concurrent general economic rules or the special economic rules of respective societies. It is also different from the fundamental economic rules and other economic rules of a certain society. This is because under socialistic conditions, the study on the whole national economy by the political economics, and the study of economic problems of construction industry by the construction industry economics (division economics) are made on the foundation of socialistic ownership of the means of production, though there is the difference of big and small scopes.

Those comrades recognize that the research objects of the construction industry economics are the economic rules under the socialist system as revealed by political economics of the functions of the construction industry. Hence, they ascertain that other industrial departments are not capable of having their economic rules. It is not a whole-scale viewpoint. That recognizes that division economics is to study the general economic rules. It is incorrect.

Furthermore, from the philosophical viewpoint of Marxism, there is co-existence of the contents and form of things, and everything has its own content and form. Only from the intimate relationship between the two

can they be distinguished. In recognizing things, the most important is to grasp its contents from its surface phenomena and forms. Hence, it is irrational to say that construction industry economics only studies the general economic rules as revealed by the political economics of the form in construction industry, and only combines the concrete practice of the construction industry to interpret the general principle of political economics. This cannot persuade the people that the development rules of things that haven't been recognized do not exist.

In construction industry economics, except for the research of economic rules which emerged in the reproduction processes of construction, we have to study the direction and policy of the Party and government relating to the production development of construction. Although human beings cannot reform the economic rules, still, human beings can use the rules to serve socialistic economic development. The direction and policy of the Party and government are regulated according to the objective development rules of the economy. This is the subjective utilization of objective rules to reform the world and its revelation. It is the starting point of every action of ours. Comrade Mao pointed out, "From analyzing these facts we find the direction, policy, and methods." (Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung, Vol. III, page 845.)

The study to the related direction and policy of the Party in development of construction production is helpful to study the objective economic rules in the scope of construction production better and more deeply. The Party's policy and direction is our starting point and the guide to our actions, so the construction industry economics has to study the Party's direction and policy related to the development of construction production. In studying about separating from the Party's direction and policy, it is difficult to recognize and discover the objective economic rules. Those comrades who have the opposite viewpoint often consider that the study of the Party's direction and policy is the business of the Party's leadership division, and our mission is to execute and not study. The above is an incorrect opinion.

First, what we say "study" is to learn and understand. If we do not study and deeply understand the Party's direction and policy, it will be impossible to execute the Party's direction and policy. Second, the Party's economic policy is the product of the people's subjective consciousness and belongs to the upper structure regulated according to certain economic conditions. There are the incessant variations of the objective economic conditions. To determine the variation of the economic foundation of the upper structure, it is necessary for the upper structure to have the corresponding variations. Concerning the correctness of the policy, Comrade Mao Tse-tung pointed out, "Through people's practices, i.e. experiences, the policy can be proved to be correct or not, and we can determine the degree of correctness and error." (Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung, Volume IV, page 1284.)

We can see the mistake of these viewpoints that in construction industry economics it is impossible and unnecessary to study the direction and policy of the Party.

From the above stated, the objects of construction industry economics are, first, the economic rules as functioning in the reproduction processes of construction. The so-called economic rule is the rule of human beings' economic activities. Apart from men's economic activities, the economic rule is of no foundation. Under the socialistic system, the economic activities of human beings are collective activities of the masses; hence, the mass route is not only our Party's policy route, but also our Party's basic economic route. The Party's socialist construction general line is the application and development of the Party's mass route in socialist construction affairs. Hence, construction industry economics should study construction production and construction management, how to sufficiently exploit the subjectivity and creativity of the masses to conclude the experiences of expanding mass movement in construction industry departments.

Generally speaking, we recognize that the principal mission of construction industry economics is to base on the principle of Marxism-Leninism's incessant revolution and the revolution development steps to study and analyze the production relationship and productivity in the processes of socialist construction and the contradictions between the upper structure and economic foundation to reveal the correct solution for these contradictory routes and methods, to insure that the Party and government will victoriously accomplish the missions of the construction industrial departments, to develop construction production in getting greater, faster, better, and more economical results, and to promote the incessant development of the national economy.

Second, the important mission of construction industry economics is to conclude the abundant experiences obtained during the development of our construction production in order to reveal the rule characteristic of rapidly developing construction production to further regulate related construction production with its direction and policy to provide sufficient scientific evidence for the Party and the government.

THE NATURE AND FUNCTION OF RURAL FAIRS IN RURAL DISTRICTS

[Following is a translation of a news report by Wang Shou-chung (王守忠) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 13 June 1961, page 2.]

A discussion meeting was recently called by the Economic Research Institute of the Kirin branch office of the Chinese Academy of Sciences for a discussion of the nature and functions of our rural fairs.

As for the nature of rural fairs, participants of the meeting all agreed that rural fairs are the components of the unified market system under socialism. They are the preliminary markets in rural districts for the exchange of products among members of production teams, production brigades, and communes. Therefore, rural fairs are basically socialistic in nature, created and determined by socialism in our country as well as by the common ownership of means of production in our communes. There is no exploiting relationship but a cooperative relationship in the exchange relationship of the fairs. Furthermore, the socialistic national trade agencies usually assume leadership in the organization and operation of rural fairs.

There were a lot of discussions in the meeting relating to the functions of rural fairs. The participants agreed that rural fairs serve as supplements to the State trade agencies. They have the following functions: (1) the promotion of subsidiary production in rural districts, the development of hidden rural labor power, the increasing of members' income and the encouragement of the aggressiveness for production among the masses; (2) the increase of sources of commodities, the broadening of business operations of the State trade agencies, the satisfying of the needs of the masses, and the vitalization of the rural economy; (3) the reduction of unnecessary links of circulation under the State trade agencies, the increasing of the speed of commodity circulation, the saving of circulation expenses, and the sharing of transportation jobs from the State trade agencies; (4) the development of leadership functions by the State trade agencies, the contribution to the convenience of the masses, and the direction of production and consumption.

At the meeting it was unanimously decided that though rural fairs are components of the unified market system of socialism, nevertheless, they are different from the planned exchange of goods under the State trade agencies. Therefore, rural fairs should be considered to be agencies for the free exchange of goods.

IV. POLITICAL

THE NATURE OF UTOPIAN SOCIALISM AND ITS EFFECTS ON HISTORY

[Following is a translation of the philosophy column, No. 293, by Ni Hai (倪海) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 2 June 1961, page 4.]

Comrade Nieh T'ien-jen (聶天仁) in the article "A Brief Discussion of the Class Basis of Utopian Socialism" in philosophy column No. 283, claimed that Utopian socialism was a reflection of the thinking of the proletariat. However, he also said that Utopian socialism failed to represent the interest of the proletariat. In addition to his quotation from Engels, "These three people (Nieh's note: St. Simon, Owen, and Fourier) had one thing in common. All of them failed to represent the interests of the proletariat which was the product of historical development." (Works of Marx and Engels, Vol. II, page 119.)

Comrade Nieh also raised the following three points: (1) The theoretical basis of Utopian socialism was basically idealism; (2) The society dreamed of by Owen and St. Simon was not a socialistic society but a reformed capitalistic society; (3) They ignored the only natural representative of socialism -- the active function of the working masses. Finally he based on the theory that "during the end of the third decade and the beginning of the fourth decade of the 19th century, Utopian socialism degenerated into the reactionary and conservative socialism and became a reactionary school," to reach the following conclusion: "Although the degeneration of Utopian socialism did not happen until much later, it strongly showed that Utopian socialism did not represent the interests of the proletariat and there was no ideological barrier between capitalism and Utopian socialism."

Along this line, Comrade Nieh, though claiming that Utopian socialism was the reflection of the desire and demand of the proletariat, actually negated the standpoint that Utopian socialism was the reflection of the thinking of the proletariat. According to my logic, since the society dreamed of by St. Simon and others was a reformed capitalistic society and there was no impenetrable barrier between Utopian socialism and capitalism, is Utopian socialism equivalent to capitalism? Therefore, the author of this article wishes to discuss three important points with Comrade Nieh.

(I)

It is very important for us to understand Utopian socialism by

reading Marx's and Engels' Communist Manifesto in which they called Utopian socialism original socialism or original communism. I consider the ideal society dreamed of by Utopian socialists was basically the same as that of scientific socialists. Marx and Engels said, "Their conclusions about our future include the abolition of the opposition between cities and farms, abolition of families, abolition of private property, abolition of employer-employee relationships, the promotion of social harmony, the change of the State into an agency only in charge of production...." (Communist Manifesto). According to the above quotation, it seems that Utopian socialism is very close to our socialism. Simply because Utopian socialism had a very rich ideological content, it became one of the three main sources and one of the three main components of Marxism. Because "Utopian socialism attacked the then existing social basis, it offered valuable reference to the class consciousness of the working class as well as good reference in our struggle against capitalists." (Communist Manifesto)

In my opinion, the difference between Utopian socialism and our scientific socialism is that the former is Utopian and the latter is scientific. In other words, the difference is the means for the realization of our goals. The Utopian socialism came into existence before the development of the struggle between the proletariat and the capitalist class. That was why those Utopian socialists saw only the evils of capitalist society but failed to find the sources of these evils. Since they did not correctly understand the capitalistic society, naturally they failed to offer correct remedies for capitalistic society. Since "they wished to use peaceful means to realize their goals and employed some minor or impossible experiments for the realization of social blessings," (Communist Manifesto) their socialism was Utopian and impractical. Socialism did not become scientific until the great discovery of the theory of surplus value and the theory of historical materialism which exposed the secrets of capitalistic production.

From the above discussions, we are sure that Utopian socialism is proletarian. When Marx and Engels discussed different schools of socialism and communism, they classified both critical Utopian socialism and communism together while excluding other schools of reactionary socialism (including feudal socialism, bourgeois socialism, and German socialism) or conservative socialism. It was wrong for Comrade Nieh to claim that there was no strong barrier between Utopian socialism and capitalism merely on the grounds of the later degeneration of the former. Comrade Nieh's theory is against historical dialectics.

According to materialistic dialectics, things are ever-developing and contradictions are subject to changes. There was a historical reason that Utopian socialism started as a revolutionary theory but later degenerated into a reactionary theory. It is not fair to consider any socialistic theory to be capitalistic merely because of its later degeneration because by so doing the function of that socialistic theory was ignored or neglected. Marx and Engels clearly pointed out in their Communist Manifesto that "Utopian socialism is in contradiction with communism and the development

of history.... The sponsors of Utopian socialism were revolutionists but their disciples organized a reactionary school because they did not notice the continuous development of history by sticking to their teachers' old viewpoints." Marx and Engels here explained very clearly that earlier Utopian socialists were revolutionists and their degeneration did not happen until later. To compare this with what Comrade Nieh said, "Although their degeneration happened later, the fact still forcibly showed that there was no strong barrier between Utopian socialism and capitalism." Marx and Engels were much fairer to those Utopian socialists.

(II)

In regard to the problem of whether the society dreamed of by St. Simon and Fourier and Owen was a socialistic society or not, I do not agree with Comrade Nieh's answer. From the conclusions given by those earlier Utopian socialists concerning ideal society, I am sure that their ideal society was not a capitalistic society. I have quoted some evidence in previous paragraphs. Now I shall just quote one more from Engels' works, "The earlier (Utopian socialists), like the instruction school of France, wanted to build a kingdom of reason and permanent justice. However, their kingdom was entirely different from the kingdom of the instruction school of France because they considered the capitalistic world of the instruction school to be unreasonable and unjust, and which should be discarded like feudalism and other old social systems. (Works of Marx and Engels, Vol. II, p. 119.) Therefore, we could say that the future society advocated by Utopian socialists was materially a socialistic society. Now, let us analyze the thinking of those earlier Utopian socialists.

Engels said that the viewpoints of St. Simon "included all the later schools of socialism as well as the prototypes of all unorthodox economic thinking." (Works of Marx and Engels, Vol. II, page 124.) According to Engels, St. Simon also advocated "the abolition of State" and "labor for everybody." Engels had the following comments about Owen: "Owen's conversion to communism was the turning point in his life." "According to Owen's opinion, there were three obstacles to social reforms: private property, religion, and the current marriage system." "Owen spent his whole fortune on carrying out communism in America." (Works of Marx and Engels, Vol. II, page 127.) From the above statements by Engels, it is impossible to arrive at a conclusion that the ideal society dreamed of by earlier Utopian socialists was not socialistic society but a capitalistic society.

Comrade Nieh charged Fourier with committing two mistakes. First, he said that Fourier advocated the preservation of the system of private property. Second, Fourier was supposed to consider capitalists to be the soul of the country and leaders and organizers of production who should continue to boss the workers. Superficially, the society advocated by Fourier looked like a capitalistic society. However, if we make a more detailed analysis of his theory, we would find an entirely opposite conclusion.

In my opinion, to criticize someone's political views, we must first pay attention to the major parts of his theory by careful analysis; otherwise we cannot get the true ideas and cannot avoid "taking the meaning of a mere paragraph as representing the whole article." The characteristics of Fourier's theory was his criticism of the then existing social order. He was extremely dissatisfied with his society and wanted to build an ideal society. Although he still kept private property in his ideal society, his ideal society was entirely different from a reformed capitalistic society. The former resulted from his dissatisfaction of his society but the latter was built on the basis of upholding capitalism. If we did not judge Fourier from this point of view, we could hardly justify why Engels praised him in the following paragraph: "From Fourier, we learned his criticism of existing social order." (Works of Marx and Engels, Vol. II, page 124.)

As for Comrade Nieh's charge that Fourier considered capitalism as the soul of the State and the leader and organizer of production, it is a big misunderstanding of Fourier's view. The ideal social unit in Fourier's ideal society was a small commune in which a chief was nominated by the members to take charge of administration. In the commune, all members worked and the income of the commune was to be split three ways: five out of 12 parts for the workers, four out of 12 parts for capitalists or investors, and the rest for intellectuals who supplied theories. He considered that his theory of small communes could be promoted to the whole world and eventually a chief of all communes in the world would be elected with a world capital at Constantinople.

(III)

Comrade Nieh's reason for charging that the society dreamed of by St. Simon, Fourier, and others was not a socialistic society and there was no strong barrier between Utopian socialism and capitalism was, in my opinion, to drive home the following conclusion: Utopian socialism was a reflection of the desire and demand of the then proletariat class, but it did not represent their interest. In regard to the nature of the society dreamed of by St. Simon and others and the difference between the thinking of Utopian socialists and the capitalistic thinking, I have already expressed my different opinion from Comrade Nieh's.

The last point to be considered here is Comrade Nieh's quotation from Engels: "They had one thing in common -- none of them represented the interest of the proletariat which was the product of historical development." Is there anything wrong with the translation of Engels' words? Does it represent Engels' original idea? I am very doubtful. According to Po Ku's (李其) translation of Development of Socialism from Utopian to Scientific, that passage was translated as follows: "They had one thing in common. That was, none of these three persons considered himself to be representing the interest of the proletariat which was the product of historical development." I have underline the words "considered himself" here and I think Engels definitely considered these three persons to be

representative of the proletariat interests. Since I have not checked the original, I hope that our comrades in charge of translation work will find the right translation which correctly expresses the original meaning of Engels' words. From our discussion of the comments made by Marx and Engels relating to Utopian socialism, I think that Comrade Po Ku's translation should be more reliable. If that is the case, we no longer need to debate the differences between the desire and demand of the proletariat and their genuine interest. Logically speaking, nobody will raise any demand which would not be in conformity with his own interest.

PSYCHOLOGY WELCOMES ALL NEW IDEAS

[Following is a translation of an article by P'an Shu
(潘舒) in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 9 June 1961,
page 2.]

"The blossoming of 100 flowers and the contending of 100 schools of thought" is the Party's powerful policy of developing arts and sciences and of enabling them to serve socialist construction successfully. These past few years in the field of arts and letters, particularly drama, this policy has been carried out and great results have been produced, bringing about a renascent atmosphere. This proves the complete correctness of the policy. The better this policy is carried out in any science, the greater is its development, and the greater the prospect of its development to meet the needs of socialist construction. The sciences of logic and medicine may be cited as the outstanding examples.

In order to develop all sciences and to imbue them with vital energy to meet the needs of socialist construction, it is imperative that the policy of "letting 100 flowers bloom and letting 100 schools of thought contend" must be carried out. Unquestionably, psychology must do the same. But psychology must do this even more urgently.

Why is this so? It is because the subject matter of psychology is highly complex, and because of the fact that despite its long history, psychology has not yet reached its maturity.

It is generally agreed that the subject matter of psychology is highly complex. Psychological phenomena are the products of the highest form of our physical development. They are rooted in physical, chemical, and physiological factors and permeate all activities of human life. It is undeniable that the discovery of any psychological process and the formulation of its law of operation are extremely difficult tasks. To capture this scientific fortress, we must attack it from all sides. Moreover, we cannot hope that our victory will be easily gained, and there are numerous steps of investigation that must be taken. This means that we need more researchers in psychology and we need more ideas. As far as psychology is concerned, we are not worried about the work being too heavy, but we are worried about it being too light. We are not worried about different ideas being too many, but we are worried about them being too few.

It is also generally agreed that psychology has not reached its maturity. The fact that, despite its long history, it has not reached its maturity is not accidental. There are social and historical reasons for

this. The main reason is that, when spiritualism, metaphysics, mechanism, or religious superstition prevail in any stage of historical development and in any society, it is impossible to have systematic scientific psychology. The growth of scientific psychology must await the development of dialectical materialism. This is so because of the high degree of complexity of its subject matter and the entity of the high level to which it belongs in the development process. If we did not have the sharp instrument of dialectical materialism, we could not dissect psychological phenomena and produce any satisfactory results. In the hands of bourgeois classes in the capitalist countries, psychology may look thriving, the column of energetic researchers may look impressive, and applications may be fairly broad, but, generally speaking, its status as a science is questionable.

It should be said that the psychological science of dialectical materialism is still in the initial stage of construction, or in the stage of laying its foundation. My personal view is that the kind of psychology we need has not yet been established. Some people do not agree with this. But I believe that this view is closer to reality. Undoubtedly, psychology is an important science that requires concentrated research. But the fact remains that up to today its development is still a long way from maturity. There are still many basic problems in psychology that defy definition.

The first basic contradiction the psychological researchers are confronted with is that psychology, important as it is, has not yet reached its maturity. To resolve this contradiction is the present mission of the Marxist psychological workers.

But how do we resolve this basic contradiction? The first thing is the ideological liberation of all psychological workers so that they will be creative in their work. Psychology is being constructed and welcomes all new ideas and suggestions. The gigantic and complicated structure of psychology cannot be built by the intelligence and wisdom of a few. It must be built by the ideas of all the workers. "Broadening benefits by pooling ideas" is very apt to describe the present need of psychology. To achieve this, the policy of "letting 100 flowers bloom and 100 schools of thought contend" must be carried out in every phase of psychological research.

The above explains why the policy has to be enforced. Hereafter we must promote this policy in the field of psychology. As psychological workers we must respond to the call of the Party and carry out this policy by our actions. We must strive to accomplish something, big or small, provided that it is in the right direction and conducive to socialist construction and development of psychology. We must also be liberated ideologically, discard our anxieties and dare to present our independent views about psychological problems, regardless of the degree of confidence we have in these views, regardless of whether they are shared by the majority or the minority, or by nobody else. We must learn from each other, jointly study and grope for the objective truth in the spirit of promoting psychological work and its development.

Possibly there are people who are skeptical about the policy of "letting 100 flowers bloom and letting 100 schools of thought contend" being applied to psychology. They contend that there are so many conflicting theories in psychology as it is. It is already very hard on beginners in this field. Now this new policy. Won't the divergence become even greater and the situation more confusing? It should be pointed out that this statement is incorrect. It should be noted that the truth is objective and there can be only one truth. Scientific psychology should be completely objective. Hence, only one kind of psychology can exist, that is, the objective kind. The present divergence of views only shows that we still do not know the objective truth, or a large portion of it. It is very difficult for our interpretations to be uniform and there may even be great differences.

The only way to make these divergent views converge towards the objective truth is to examine, freely discuss, and debate them. No other method contrary to this will do. In free discussions and penetrating debates, the correct views or the correct parts of these views will flock together and be recognized and accepted by an increasing number of people. The incorrect views will be sifted out and discarded. This process is borne out by the history of the development of human knowledge and the history of the development of science. Therefore, the policy of "letting 100 flowers bloom and 100 schools of thought contend" on the surface seems to increase confusion, but actually is the best method of leading us to a "conclusion." This powerful policy of the Party to develop arts and sciences may be said to be the conscious application of the basic law governing the development of civilization and knowledge of mankind.

In order to carry out this policy, psychological workers must not only be engaged in free discussions on theoretical problems, but also develop practical research work in every phase of psychology. The necessity of doing the former is obvious and requires no comment. The latter is needed to gradually enrich the new content of psychology, to coordinate psychology with the reality of socialist construction, and to clarify points at issue through actual practices. Hence, any one-sided attention is not the best way to carry out the policy. Both areas should be simultaneously developed and will become complementary to each other. At present, psychology needs free discussions on the one hand and all kinds of practical research work on the other. All psychological workers must tackle all kinds of problems related to psychology and provide accumulated data as the basis for debating divergent views. This is another form of "letting 100 flowers bloom and 100 schools of thought contend" which psychology urgently needs.

THE PROBLEM OF DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO WORK
DISCUSSED AT AMOY UNIVERSITY

[Following is the translation of a dispatch in Kuang-ming Jih-pao, Peiping, 26 June 1961, page 1.]

The political-economic study group of the Economics Department of Amoy University recently held discussion meetings to determine whether distribution according to work is an economic law or a principle of socialist distribution. During these discussions, the following points were agreed upon. First, distribution according to work has its objective necessity in the distribution of consumer goods under the socialist system. This is so because the development of production has not yet reached a sufficiently high level, the output of goods is not sufficiently great, and the ideological comprehension of the people is still limited, etc. These factors have determined the socialist distribution of consumer goods and the differences and the equivalent value exchanges.

Second, the problem of distribution occupies an important position in the economic life, and the distribution of consumer goods occupies a dominant position in the distribution of all social products. Distribution according to work is based on the principle of material benefits, but it is not the equivalent of material stimulation which may weaken ideological motivation. Distribution according to work and ideological motivation must be complementary to each other.

As to whether distribution according to work is really an economic law or a principle in the socialist distribution of consumer goods, there are two distinct views.

A number of comrades maintain that distribution according to work is an economic law of the socialist distribution of consumer goods. Their reasons are (1) socialism is an early stage of the economic development of communism and has its special economic laws. The law of communist distribution manifests itself in the form of the law of distribution according to work in the socialist stage.

(2) If you accept the objective necessity of distribution according to work, then you must accept it as the economic law of the socialist distribution of consumer goods. For objective necessity means the inevitability of its happening, something to be recognized and utilized, but not to be opposed.

(3) Although the distribution system on the basis of wages and supplies practiced in the communes in the farm areas, and certain welfare funds used in socialist enterprises represent the small beginnings of

distribution according to needs, they cannot be used to deny the fact that distribution according to work is the economic law of socialism.

(4) It is a theoretical contradiction to accept the equivalent value exchange as an economic law but not to accept distribution according to work as an economic law also; distribution according to work is the realization of equivalent value exchange in a different area.

Another group of comrades does not agree with the above view. They contend that distribution according to work is a principle of the socialist distribution of consumer goods. Their reasons are (1) The economic structures of socialism and the advanced stage of communism are all communistic. Socialism cannot have its own special laws. Socialism is the early stage of development, during which the economic laws of communism cannot be in full operation. Therefore, it cannot be assumed that the law of communist distribution manifests itself in the form of the law of distribution according to the work in socialism.

(2) Laws are recurrent causal relationships between objective entities, whereas the principles are determined by men on the basis of objective laws plus the consideration of other conditions, historical factors, etc.

(3) The supply system and public welfare fund outlays are not minor items in the socialist distribution of consumer goods. Furthermore, during the entire socialistic stage, the scope and ratio of the supply system will increase as a result of the development of production power and the increasing output of goods. The socialist distribution of consumer goods, to a large extent, can be placed on the basis of distribution according to needs. This also explains that the distribution according to work is not a law in the socialist distribution of consumer goods.